The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 13, 1891.

The Week.

SENATOR Sherman is picking his way over the stones in Ohio in his usual circumspect manner. He has written a letter to the Urbana *Citizen* to define his position on the McKinley tariff. We print the essential part of it in juxtaposition with what he said in the Senate concerning a much lower tariff than that of McKinley:

SHERMAN ON THE M'KINLEY TARIFF.

The policy of a nation upon economic questions should be fixed and stable. The McKinley law as now framed, though it may be open to criticism as to details, is a strictly protective measure, fair and just as applied to all industries, with ample provisions to secure reciprocity in the exchange of domestic productions for articles we cannot produce. It ought to be thoroughly tested by the experience of several years. It is not good policy to disturb it or keep the public mind in suspense about it. It will, as I think, demonstrate its wisdom, but if not, with the light of experience, it can be modified. The highest policy and the greatest good to our people lie in the full trial of this effort to establish upon a firm foundation the domestic production of every article essential to American life and independence.

SHERMAN ON THE TARIFF BILL OF 1872.

It must be remembered that the present duties, taken together, are far in excess of what they were before the war, and that they have been three times largely increased since the passage of the Morrill Tariff Act of 1861. . . . The result of such duties is to secure to mechanical industries higher wages than can be earned in other kindred employments. Such excessive protection not only ceases to diversify production, but forces labor into protected employments. If the present rates of duty were high enough during and since the war, when home industry was burdened with heavy internal taxes—with stamp duties, income taxes, and high rates on raw materials—then surely they are now too high when all these taxes are removed.

The falling off in dutiable imports during the first nine months of the operation of the McKinley Bill is given by the Bureau of Statistics as $55,543,692. These figures, while no doubt correct, are yet misleading in one important particular. We refer to the extra amount of tin plate imported in the period in question, in order to anticipate the increased duty going into effect July 1. A high English authority estimates the sales of Welsh tin plate to American purchasers since last October at $10,000,000 above the average sales for a similar length of time in foregoing years. This estimate falls in very well with the Treasury returns of the imports of tin plate for the eleven months ending May 31, as compared with the same part of the preceding year, which show an increase in the former period of $10,100,000. Thus it is perfectly clear that in the future, now that the McKinley tax on tin plate is actually in force, another $10,000,000 should be knocked off our importations, making the total falling off more than $65,600,000. This ought to mean an extra $10,000,000 worth of happiness to the McKinley organs, but it will not. Their chorus of delight at finding the total of imports actually increased under the new tariff shows that they do not really believe in their own professions, and were in great alarm lest the Republican party should have to bear the odium of having contracted the nation's foreign commerce. Moreover, deep down in their hearts they are quaking for fear they will have to enter the next campaign with the burden of a Treasury deficit on their backs, and would secretly be glad to see the dutiable imports mount up to any figure if only the gaps made in the Treasury by extravagant legislation could be filled.

The Republican Club Convention at Syracuse had very little excuse for being, its sum total of achievement having been the passage of a set of resolutions which are in part perfunctory and in part unintelligible. The perfunctory parts are the endorsement of the Administration of President Harrison (no separate mention of Blaine); approval of the doctrine of protection to American labor (no separate mention of the McKinley Bill); approval of "a fair ballot and a fair count" (no separate mention of the Force Bill); approval of judicious and liberal pension laws (no special mention of any bill). The unintelligible part is the demand for "a bimetallic currency based on sound financial principles that will protect the producer and consumer."

An interview with Senator Carlisle is published by the Philadelphia *Ledger* in which he expresses the opinion that the incoming Congress will pass a free-coinage bill, and that President Harrison will be greatly embarrassed by it. The Senator may be right in his conception of the action of Congress, but he is very much "out" if he thinks that President Harrison would be embarrassed by the passage of a free-coinage bill. On the contrary, the opportunity of vetoing such a bill would be welcomed by him with avidity, since it would change the issue upon which the Republicans were so tremendously thrashed last fall. Anything which promises a change is pat to his hand. It does not make much difference what the change is. No political disaster could be worse than that which the McKinley tariff brought upon the party. Therefore any change will be welcomed, especially a change which brings with it some moral character, an element in which the party has been much lacking of late. To veto a bill which looks to depreciation of the currency and to cheating creditors, would be an act of moral elevation that would attract thousands of voters who are not now friendly to Mr. Harrison or to his party. The embarrassment would be very much on the other side.

The *Financial Chronicle* makes an analysis of the Treasury statements for August 1. These show a net gain of $1,986,273 in the Government's holdings of cash in subtreasuries and in national banks during the month. But on the other hand the disbursements for interest in July were about $4,000,000 less than normal, owing to Secretary Windom's prepayment of the same. In other words, if things had run on in the customary way, the August statement would have shown a loss of about $2,000,000 in cash holdings. The *Chronicle* goes on to show that since the 1st of January there has been a shrinkage of $31,000,000 in the public revenues, while the expenditures for the same period have increased $36,385,000. It should be added that the maturing 4½ per cent. bonds are due on the 1st of September, and that there are about $29,000,000 of those bonds still to be accounted for. The holders of that amount have not yet signified their wish for an extension at 2 per cent. There are good reasons to believe that most of these bonds will be presented for payment. One reason for thinking so is that the money can be used at better rates than 2 per cent. Another reason is, that if the holders take their pay now, they will get it in gold, whereas it is just possible that they may get it in silver if they wait. If twenty millions should be called for on the 1st of September, the Secretary's gold balance would perhaps be cut down to the $100,000,000 constituting the greenback-redemption fund. Anticipating this approach to the $100,000,000 fund, the Philadelphia *Press* of August 8 has an editorial article urging Secretary Foster to make a declaration beforehand that he will sell bonds to recoup his gold reserve if necessary. This article derives considerable weight from the paper's semi-official relations to the Administration.

The statements given out by the Treasury officers regarding the effect of the bond-extension policy on national-bank circulation are extremely misleading. It would appear from these interviews that the banks are expanding their circulation rapidly by use of the new 2 per cents; yet the regular official bulletins show nothing of the kind. On the first of July the Treasury circular reported $22,638,450 of the 4½ per cents held as a basis for bank circulation. On the first of August the same account showed $16,772,650 of the 4½s, and $5,942,950 of the 2 per cents; a total of $22,715,600, or less than $80,000 increase for the whole country. Even this small increase, moreover, was offset by a decrease of $375,000 in holdings of the same bonds as security against public deposits, so that the banks now hold $300,000 less of the 4½s and 2s than they held of the 4½s alone a month ago. It is quite true that there has been an increase in total bank circulation during the month, but the new circulation

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

has been based almost wholly upon the 4 per cents and currency 6s, and most of these bonds were already deposited by the banks as security for Government deposits. The rapid decrease in the public-deposit account left a considerable amount of these bonds free, and, rather than sell them in a dead market, the bankers have simply transferred them to the account of note circulation.

Considering the general condition of our investment market, the readiness of the public to take shares in newly incorporated business houses is the phenomenon of current finance. Within a month, three important firms have advertised their corporate shares for outside subscription, the aggregate amount of stock offered being $4,000,000. In each instance, the shares were promptly subscribed for; in two cases they were "oversubscribed" long before the prescribed time-limit was reached. Yet, in the face of this, it has been found impossible to sell a single new issue of railroad bonds; a new stock issue of an important railway, offered at a heavy discount, had to be taken almost entirely by the company's shareholders; and even cities in excellent credit, such as Cincinnati, St. Louis, and Brooklyn, have sought in vain for a market for their bonds. The phenomenon would be less puzzling if we were to assume, as some authorities are disposed to do, that the former partnership interests in these enterprises have bought up the bulk of the new stock, leaving only an insignificant proportion for outsiders. But this is not easy to prove, and it is rendered improbable by the quick succession of such subscription offers, involving, as each of them does, enormous advertising and commission expenses. If it were known to the projectors that previous public subscriptions of the kind had not been successful, it is safe to suppose that they would wait for a few months, until the investment community had regained its equanimity, before undertaking their own experiment. Moreover, it should be noted that London's investment market presents the same anomaly. The public subscriptions to new loans and shares in that city average nearly 50 per cent. less than in 1890, and the reader will look in vain along the list for railway bonds and shares. The recently reported sale in that city of $5,000,000 bonds of an American railway is much doubted by financiers, and it stands in any case absolutely alone. The falling off in England has affected chiefly the enterprises for colonial and South American development; here, the burden has come upon the enterprises for developing our own West.

Mr. Drew, the National Bank Examiner who was dismissed by the Comptroller of the Currency because of his course in regard to the Keystone Bank of Philadelphia, has sent to the Comptroller a long statement which the latter is likely to find a troublesome document. Let us say, before giving an outline of it, that, early in the investigation of the Keystone Bank scandal, Mr. Drew was put upon the witness-stand and gave testimony which made it of vital importance to have the Comptroller summoned as a witness. It was obvious that such a proceeding was necessary in order that the whole truth in the matter might be disclosed. The Comptroller was invited to appear before the Committee, but the Harrison Administration decided that it would not be advisable for him to do so, and that he must confine himself to a written statement in reply to Drew's testimony. That statement was prepared, but was not allowed to be sent and published until it had been carefully revised at a Cabinet meeting. It did not meet many of the points raised by Drew's testimony and that of other witnesses, and was, of course, far less satisfactory than an oral examination and cross-examination of the Comptroller would have been. Subsequently, Mr. Drew was dismissed because of a failure on his part to include $544,000 of Clearing-house certificates in one of his reports, in a list of the liabilities of the Keystone Bank. This report was dated January 24, 1891, and his dismissal was dated July 2, 1891.

In his statement Mr. Drew says that his report of January 24 was plainly marked on its face "Preliminary," was characterized by him in an accompanying letter as "a sort of an abstract," thus "intimating a fuller and more trustworthy report to follow, and which did in fact soon follow, with the omitted item entered in full." The second report was accompanied by a letter explaining that the omission in the preliminary report had been a "sheer accident." After this explanation, which may be taken for what it is worth, Mr. Drew goes on to make some very serious charges against the Comptroller in reference to his conduct towards the Keystone and Spring Garden National Banks. He declares that "early in 1890" the names of these banks were furnished by him to the Comptroller as "banks whose condition was so unsatisfactory, and whose methods were so objectionable, as in my (Drew's) opinion, to require especial attention on the part of his office"; that his "reports for a long period, particularly of July 3, 1890, showed the Keystone National Bank then to be in a very unsatisfactory condition, requiring an immediate and radical change of management and of method"; that when the Keystone Bank took out Clearing-house certificates in November, 1890, and when in the "run" of December, 1890, such certificates to the large amount of $730,000 were advanced to it, he kept the Comptroller fully informed; that on February 13, 1891, the Comptroller, at Drew's suggestion, visited the Keystone Bank and personally saw its Clearing-house account; that on February 16, and on February 28, 1891, Drew sent to the Comptroller reports giving a full account of the bank's affairs; that in addition to these official reports, he sent to the Comptroller on June 8 and 13 private letters giving him the exact facts about the bank's condition, and that the Comptroller subsequently informed him of the receipt of these letters. The Comptroller closed the Keystone Bank on March 20, 1891, or more than a year after Mr. Drew declares that he informed him of its unsatisfactory condition. Why did he allow it to remain open so long, and, after he had closed it, why did he dismiss the Examiner for an error in a report which was made five months earlier, and which was corrected almost immediately? These are questions which make it more imperative than ever for the Comptroller to take the witness-stand.

Mr. James Russell Lowell died yesterday at his home in Cambridge. We give in another column a critical account of his career and of his place in the world of letters. But no tribute to his memory in the *Nation* would be complete or adequate which failed to mention how much it owed to his sympathy and encouragement from the day of its foundation, and how unstintingly these were given to its conductors. His rare contributions to its columns, though very valuable, were but a very insignificant part of the support it received from him. What was most valuable was his constant and very frequent private expressions of praise and appreciation. These never ceased for any great interval during twenty-five years of good and evil report, and they, we need not say to readers of his works, and still less to those who knew the man himself, came from the hand of a master in politics as well as in literature, and, what was still better, from the hand of one of the warmest and stanchest of friends. Of no American of our time might it be more truly said, "Nec vero ille in luce modo atque in oculis civium magnus, sed intus domique præstantior. Qui sermo, quæ precepta!"

The downfall of prohibition in Kansas appears to be complete. The amendment to the Constitution was adopted in November, 1880, by a vote of 92,302 to 84,304, and provides that "the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors shall be for ever prohibited in this State, except for medical, scientific, and mechanical purposes." A Legislature chosen at the same time passed an act to enforce the amendment the following winter, so that the system has now had a ten years' trial. The results are summarized in a letter just published from E. Leonardson, "State organizer Prohibition party." Mr. Leonardson begins with the frank confession that "there is more liquor sold and drunk to-day in Kansas than at any time since the passage of the amendment. There is a general letting down all over the State." Coming down from generals to particulars, he says that "there are about 150 saloons and four wholesale liquor houses in Leavenworth" (population, by the new census, 19,768); that "there are about 130 in Atchison [population 13,963], also a brewery with a wagon running on the street selling beer"; that "nearly all the large towns are collecting re-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

venue from the saloons"; that "many of the small towns are following the example of the larger ones"; and, finally, that "unless something is done to open the eyes of the people to the facts, fair Kansas will soon be under the power of the saloon."

A remarkable contribution to the Presbyterian controversy over Prof. Briggs appears in the *Evangelist* of August 6. It will be remembered that the convincing argument against delay in dealing with the case at the Assembly, last May, was that it was "now or never"; that is, that, under the terms of the compact between the Assembly and Union Seminary, veto of an appointment to a professorship must be exercised within a year, or else the right to use it would lapse. Now comes a Scranton lawyer, Mr. Torrey, pointing to the fact that no such limitation whatever appears in the original compact made with Union in 1870; it was introduced in 1871 in the compact made with Lane and Auburn Seminaries. Coming thus a full year after the closing and execution of the contract with Union, there is no legal ground whatever, so Mr. Torrey convincingly argues, for saying that the Assembly could not defer action in the case of a Union professor without losing the right to act at all later on. Moreover, he goes on to show that, as a matter of fact, the Assembly in 1879 and 1880 actually had deferred action on the election of professors until more than a year after the same, and that, too, in the cases of Lane and Auburn, where the time-limit was specifically set down in the compact. Of course, the case is closed now, as far as the Assembly is concerned, and all this is of no practical avail, but it is of interest as bringing out the amazing fact that amid all the wrestling of the ecclesiastical constitutional lawyers at Detroit, no one actually went to the record to see what the facts were. It is perfectly clear that if Mr. Torrey's presentation of the case could have been laid before the Assembly, the wind would have been completely taken out of the sails of the "now or never" men, and the appointment of Prof. Briggs left over to await the action of the New York Presbytery.

Mr. W. E. Bear, the well-known English writer on agricultural statistics, supplies to *Bradstreet's* a "rough estimate" of the shortage in the wheat harvests of Europe this year, and of the sources of supply from other parts of the world. Mr. Bear's estimate, it should be noted, takes account of the short rye crop as an element in calculating the demand for wheat. He begins with Russia, whose wheat production last year (including Poland) was about 212,000,000 bushels and her exports about 90,000,000 bushels. This year Mr. Bear thinks her crop will not be over 180,000,000 bushels and her exports not above 40,000,000. Austria-Hungary falls short this year 27,000,000 bushels as compared with last year. The country will not be able to spare more than 8,000,000 bushels. Rumania has a good crop and may be able to spare 30,000,000 bushels. Bulgaria and Servia may export 12,000,000 bushels. The power of the exporting countries of Europe to supply the importing countries is thus set down at 90,000,000 bushels as a maximum. The importing countries will have a deficiency of 371,000,000 bushels, so that Europe in the aggregate will be under the necessity of importing 281,000,000 bushels from the other quarters of the world. What countries can supply this amount? Mr. Bear thinks that India may furnish 33,000,000 and the United States 144,000,000, leaving still a shortage of 104,000,000 to be looked for in Australia, South America, Canada, Asia Minor, Egypt, etc. Mr. Kains-Jackson shows that this wheat requirement of Europe will call for ship room of 5,600,000 bushels per week average for the whole year. The editor of *Bradstreet's* considers Mr. Bear's estimate of the European deficiency rather under than over the mark.

The French have evidently had a thorough inoculation with protectionism, and are all the while breaking out with it in unexpected places. The law for the regulation of the practice of medicine which lately passed the Chamber is so purely a domestic concern that one would scarcely look for a blow at the "foreign devil" in it—but there it is. Some of its provisions of purely French application are open to objection, as, for example, its abolition of health officers, and its imposition of a fine of from 100 to 1,000 francs upon a priest or sister of charity who should venture to prescribe remedies of any kind to the sick. Both the clauses aim, of course, to give a monopoly to regular physicians as against unlicensed practitioners, as does also the particularly absurd one prohibiting a pharmacist, even if a graduate in medicine, from prescribing; but the worst of all is that forbidding a foreign doctor to practise in France, even temporarily, without obtaining a degree from a native school. It would seem that the suicidal effect of such a law would be at once apparent in view of the great numbers of foreign invalids who, with their own physicians, seek the health resorts in the south of France every year. Doubtless there was some prevision of this in that clause of the bill which authorizes the Government to make exception of a certain number of cases when asked to do so by foreign ministers; but even this qualification leaves the measure an especially narrow and benighted one. Not even physicians of souls are to escape, it would appear, if they are foreigners. The Minister of Justice and Worship is about to make an investigation of the nationality of priests in the various parishes of the city of Paris. Those who turn out not to be French citizens are to be deprived of their livings, and it is said that some fifteen or sixteen are in that unfortunate plight. Finally, the hated foreigner is to have no place in the system of public education. The Minister of Public Instruction has lately sent a circular to principals of *lycées* and colleges, informing them that foreigners are not to be allowed to act as teachers or assistants in any schools above the primary grade, unless they first secure permission from the Government to take up their domicile in France, this authorization to be valid for five years only, at the end of which period they must become naturalized French citizens or lose their positions. Thus are the blessings of protection extending.

With the characteristic folly of protectionists, the French Chamber has decided that the general tariff which has just been enacted for France shall apply equally to all her colonies. The Chamber refused an adjournment of the debate, which was proposed in order that the representatives of the colonies might prepare their case, and insisted upon the measure in spite of all reason. A deputy from Martinique declared that if it became a law, it would be for the colonies a radical revolution. It would involve not only an abandonment of the existing colonial policy, but would necessitate an entire change of the policy upon which the colonies regulated their interior affairs. The different productions, the different manners, the different needs of the colonies are wholly disregarded by this extraordinary measure, and it is almost amusing to see such a crushing blow dealt to its own colonies by a Power that has been at such great pains to establish and extend them. The French seem to regard their colonies now just as England looked upon hers during the last century, as mere plantations established for the benefit of the traders of the home country, and are going through England's experience that the traders of the home country can be benefited only by a policy that allows free development to its colonies.

The report upon public instruction in France contains some interesting figures. Confining our attention to intermediate schools, it appears that the practical monopoly of education by the Government has nearly extinguished the private schools not supported by religious denominations. They have decreased in number since 1876 from 494, with 30,000 pupils, to 250 in 1891, with only 15,000 pupils. On the other hand, the religious schools, in spite of most oppressive legislation, show a considerable increase. In 1876 they numbered 309, with 46,800 pupils, and in 1891 they had increased to 352, with 51,200 pupils, and the 139 *petits séminaires* had in addition more than twenty thousand pupils. Comparing these numbers with those of the Government schools, it seems that about one-half of the youth of the middle class are still educated outside of the Government institutions. In both classes of schools a marked decrease in the number of pupils boarded in the institutions has taken place. The cry is already heard that the fees now charged for schooling should be remitted, but it cannot be said that any movement in this direction has yet manifested itself.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

MR. M'KINLEY'S EXPLANATION OF THE TARIFF.

THOSE of the people of Ohio who were gathered at Lakeside a few days ago, had the privilege of listening to a speech upon the tariff by Mr. McKinley that is described by men who have heard him often as one of the strongest he has ever delivered. As it is desirable to know all that can be said in favor of the measure with which Mr. McKinley's name is associated, we shall try to present the main points of this speech. The first point emphasized was that "the subject of the tariff, stripped of everything else, is simply the subject of taxation." But as we are immediately told that taxation is necessary to every municipality, it is plain that the subject of taxation is not always the same as the subject of the tariff. It is fair to say, therefore, that Mr. McKinley meant that the tariff was a tax, but not the only kind of tax. That this was his meaning is apparent from the subsequent statement that there are two forms of taxation: "The one is the direct system of taxation and the other the indirect system, or a tariff tax."

As to the direct system of taxation, Mr. McKinley dismisses it briefly with the assertion that "there is no considerable sentiment in the United States in favor of raising $360,000,000 by a system of direct taxation. . . . Therefore the Government is remitted to that other form of taxation that is commonly called tariff taxation—that is, taxing somebody else's property rather than our own; taxing the property of other nations seeking a market in the United States." It seems strange that Mr. McKinley should have omitted to mention that system of taxation known as the internal revenue, which cannot be described as either direct or indirect taxation according to his definition. It is almost incredible, considering that he has been a member of Congress for some years, that he has not heard of the existence of the taxes upon liquors and tobacco; and if he knew of such taxes, he should not have made the classification that he did. It is strange, also, that he did not mention the sugar duties. If the tariff is "taxing somebody else's property," why did the McKinley Bill throw away fifty millions of dollars per year that foreigners were paying into our treasury?

Leaving this matter, we would call attention to another error into which Mr. McKinley has evidently fallen, especially as it is an error common among protectionists—the error of supposing that a tariff is a tax "upon somebody else's property rather than our own." This error on Mr. McKinley's part may be explained, if not excused, by his having passed his life in an interior State and having had few educational opportunities. He evidently labors under the impression that foreign governments take the goods produced in their respective jurisdictions, bring them over here and pay the duties imposed by our Government, and then sell them to American citizens for whatever they can get. Some one ought to point out to Mr. McKinley's audiences that such commerce as this exists only in his imagination. As a matter of fact, American citizens generally sell their products to the citizens of foreign countries and buy goods with the proceeds, paying the duties upon the goods to their own Government. The tax is paid in most cases by American citizens; but it is in reality a tax upon commerce, and may affect the price of exports as well as that of imports. There is certainly no evidence that "the property of other nations" ever passes through our custom-houses.

Apparently, Mr. McKinley is not altogether satisfied with this explanation of the incidence of taxation, for he immediately proceeds to abandon the position that the tariff is a tax and nothing else. There is a tariff for revenue, but there is also a tariff for protection, and that is the kind of tariff he favors. If he felt sure that the tariff was a tax only upon the property of foreigners, he would scarcely propose to give up this simple and convenient means of paying our expenses. As he justly says, you cannot have revenue without having importations; and although revenue is a good thing, yet it is better to go without it than to have it at such a price. "Every importation of foreign competing products displaces the purchase of that much domestic products, which ought to be produced by the American people."

At this point in his speech, Mr. McKinley becomes quite incoherent, being excited by the spectacle of a glass tumbler upon which the tariff is 60 per cent., nor does he attempt further argument or return to the subject of taxation. He refers to the period between 1846 and 1861—a period when the census reports show that our material progress was more rapid than at any other—as a period when we had a genuine revenue tariff. "During that time there was the Mexican war, the famine in Ireland, the European war, the Crimean War, and in the meantime there was the great discovery of gold in California; yet with all these helps to American manufactures, commerce, and trade, the revenue-tariff policy of 1846 signally failed to supply the revenue needed for the Government." Possibly if further help had come in the shape of a universal epidemic of smallpox and cholera, together with frequent earthquakes and destructive floods, this result might have been different. As the Government did not then need a revenue of $500,000,000 a year, but a little more than one-tenth of that sum, as its revenues were ample for its purposes, and as American manufactures, commerce, and trade flourished as they never had flourished before and never have since, Mr. McKinley's lamentations are unnecessary. If he had cared to pursue the subject of taxation, he might have added that the taxes per caput during that period were less than half what they are now.

With a degree of confidence in the ignorance of his audience which we trust was unjustifiable, Mr. McKinley argued that a revenue tariff is unwise because at one time under such a tariff the bonds of the Government were at a discount of 12 per cent. As to the discount under a protective tariff, he is silent. As a matter of fact, the protective tariff did operate to depress the value of our bonds, as Mr. Bagehot has shown, while the revenue tariff did not; but it is scarcely worth while to consider the question at length. Mr. McKinley repeats the foolish statement that 99 per cent. of the duty upon raw material imported is refunded by the Government when the material is manufactured and exported. As the expense of collecting the duties is nominally 3 per cent., and really a good deal more, the Government pays a bounty to traders who will furnish goods to foreigners at a cheaper rate than our own people can get them. Mr. McKinley commits himself to tin in the following positive language: "Mark my words: inside of four years you will get cheaper tin than you ever got before, and it will be American tin, made in American mills, from American raw material, by American workingmen, for the American people." This may be worth remembering, and it is at all events a fair specimen of the logic of Mr. McKinley's speech, which we are quite willing to believe is "one of the strongest he has ever delivered."

SOCIOLOGY AND THE CHURCH.

THE customary summer jokes about closed churches and clerical trips to Europe have scarcely had their usual run this year. They were never exactly brilliant, and have had most of their reason for existence in the nervous wincing at them visible in the churches themselves. But that is about gone now, and the practical cessation of church life in the city is accepted as inevitable during the summer time. In other words, the churches have come to perceive and frankly acknowledge that they are but a part of the life of society, by the customs and trend of which they are and must be largely shaped. This has always been an historical fact, as recent investigations of the powerful influence of its environment upon early Christianity have convincingly shown; but the churches themselves are more acutely conscious of it now than ever before.

This change of feeling is leading to still greater changes in practice. When the Church considered itself as in but not of the world, its contact with society at large being mainly for the purpose of rescuing an individual here and there from a corrupt and doomed social order, it inevitably had an air of aloofness and condemnation. But now that it is coming to the conception of Christianity as but an element in the whole movement of civilization, it necessarily feels its solidarity with the social organization in which it exists, and thinks more about bettering and building up society as a whole than of snatching individual brands from the burning. The result is a far kindlier attitude towards projects for social reform, and a measurable recovery of lost enthusiasm through the new interest in sociological studies and experiments. In fact, the quickening of church zeal in that direction has been so marked that church leadership in philanthropic effort, now when it is given so largely a scientific basis, is almost as pronounced as it was in the days of its more strictly religious grounding. The feeling of "social compunction"—the name

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

a well-known writer gives to the vague sense of obligation to do something for the unfortunate classes in society—is stronger and commoner in no part of the community than in the churches.

And they are allowing it to work great changes in their thought and organization. Sociology is accorded a vastly more important place than formerly, for example, in the preparatory studies of the ministry. The recent founding of a chair of Sociology in a theological seminary is highly suggestive of the new point of view, as is also the fact that the professorship became at once the most popular one in the institution. Before that noteworthy event, practical training in sociological methods had been provided for here and there in the way of sending theological students to investigate certain social and social-religious questions in great cities. The tendency had, perhaps, its most striking emphasis in an address by President Hyde before the Congregational clergy in Boston. According to published reports, he flatly declares for the retiring of dogmatic theology to the extreme background of the seminary curriculum, and its virtual displacement by discipline in sociology. Such displacement is already an accomplished fact in the actual experience of multitudes among the younger clergy, who leave the Church Fathers and the system-makers unopened in order to read the latest monographs of social investigators, and reports on organized charity, prison reform, model coffee-houses, labor organizations, and the like.

We have already said that church people are among the readiest to accept the methods of applied sociology. A good instance of this is their very general willingness to cooperate with associations for organized charity. This willingness was rather slow in appearing. The special charities of the individual church were almost sacred to it, and it seemed little short of an outrage to ask it to merge these in the general charitable work of the community, or at least to allow its own records of names and gifts to be entered in the common register. But it did not take the associations long, after they were fairly at work collecting facts and making investigations, to convince the church authorities that charity by isolated and secret methods was a direct encouragement to professional mendicancy and fraud; and now, we believe, it is seldom that church records are not at their disposal for purposes of comparison. We might adduce other cases of a similar acquiescence on the part of the Church in forms and methods of benevolent work quite inconsistent with the older view that society as such could not be improved outside of its own organization and control. Wholly apart from millenarian views, the improvability of society and the possibility of a kingdom of heaven on earth are now generally accepted articles of belief. They derive largely from sociology.

No account of its influence upon theological conceptions should omit to notice the profound modifications which it has brought about in the whole idea of the economy of redemption. This was long conceived of from an intensely individualistic standpoint. The powers of good and evil were arrayed in deadly struggle for the possession of the individual soul, and Christ came to save not a race or a society, but a number of individuals. All that is rapidly disappearing—has gone, in fact, from the writings and sermons of all who do not take their teaching exclusively from the past. Now the talk is all of a race redemption, and of a salvation which has society in the mass as its objective. Doubtless this has been reflected back into theology from the sociological studies of the time; but that fact is of less importance than the practical effects of the change of view, and it is mainly to them that we have wished to call attention.

CITY BOARDERS AND THE FARM.

How essential it is that the various forces which bear upon a great social or economic question should each have its separate estimate, is brought out vividly in an article by Mr. Edward Hungerford on "Our Summer Migration" in the current number of the *Century*. Mr. Hungerford, with great skill and minuteness, sets forth the present and potential value of the city boarder to the farmer, and shows optimistically the relation of the former to country life in its various branches and especially in relation to rural decadence. Nearly all that Mr. Hungerford says pro and con on the question may be fully conceded, except the too large balance which he strikes in favor of city influence and city dollars in the summer home of the urban "boarder." It is the old experience over again, that a dozen points of reasoning, each good enough in itself, do not countervail the weight of two or three much more important considerations to be set in the opposite scale.

The first suggestion which presents itself in connection with Mr. Hungerford's too rosy views is, that while the city boarder may make the farmer's family more "æsthetic," may transmit a bit of culture, may help in the support of the family, may add somewhat to the local demand for minor farm products, and so on; yet the same boarder works in another way directly against the "farm idea," pure and simple. The whole conception of successful and real farming, both ancestral and present, involves the converging of the owner's full strength upon his land. Now, as in the old days, it is the story of close economies, of the toiling housewife, of the farmer himself battling with and subduing his stubborn soils. This is real farming, and is the farm life which in the old times brought out, in the "strength by struggle" form, the grand old race of yeomen whose passing we so justly deplore. Boarding-house-keeping in the country, with its constant tendency to "add a new wing," to take new boarders, and still more boarders, and finally to let the meadow go, provided only the truck garden "for boarders" can be kept up, is not farming. In fact, precisely as this boarding-house idea expands, that of old-fashioned farming wanes. The former idea may build up a race of truck-farmers, may create a body of rural boarding-house-keepers, may possibly in a few cases prevent an old farm from being abandoned or sold out at 10 per cent. of its former value. But does it positively and directly stimulate the genuine farming spirit and yeoman ambition or hopes? Is it not rather a substituted calling, which takes, or tends to take, the place of genuine agriculture?

Let us consider the subject in a more practical way so as to get a clearer perspective of it. If we exclude the younger children on the farm, who, sad to say, our census shows are decreasing, we may divide in our Eastern States the farm race into three groups. One is the old parental group, made up of the "old folks" fifty years or more of age, who, for manifest reasons, are pretty certain to remain on the farm for the rest of their lives. Next we have the grown-up daughters of the farm-house. Some of these leave the farm for the city or the West, but not, on the whole, many of them, save as they go in the migration of their young husbands. Finally, far more important than the other two groups, we have the "young-farmer" class, whether married or not. This is the class on whom really the whole farm problem centres. They form the great body of the long procession which streams to the cities and westward, subtracting from the farm the bone, sinew, brains, and aspirations of its life. To consider them and the relation to them of motives and influences is to consider almost the whole of the imperative and depressing farm question.

Is the contact of the city boarder with such a class stimulative of home ambitions or not? Whether the city boarder is intellectual, or artistic, or merely wealthy, is his or her example to the young son of the farm such as to make him contented with his lot? We might also refer, as does Mr. Hungerford, to the pernicious influence of a "fast" city element to be found at fashionable country places, but that we do not now put stress upon. The main point is, that the incursion upon him of city life for a certain number of months in the year makes even more visible than before to the young farmer the rise of classes above him, and infects him with the desire to make money and copy them. It is pretty hard, too, to conceive such a young man, spirited and ambitious, even if he have a natal love of the soil, remaining contented in the farm boarding-house, which, on the whole, must seem to him a grade below the independent farmer's position. This pride of his may be false and foolish, yet it is in him just the same as in other persons who by necessity are forced to the expedient of "taking boarders," which *per se* is perfectly honorable and praiseworthy. But even without this factor of pride, is not the mere contact of the young farmer with city culture and wealth a force which unsettles him and makes him restless more than it spurs his local energies?

We might speak of another point raised by Mr. Hungerford, namely, the future reflux of migration to Eastern farms after those at the West have been taken up. That in time it will come is probable, though

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

it may be seen only by our remote posterity. When it does come, however, will it be an eastward coming of actual farmers, or of the wealthy "fancy-farmer" type? Will it be a new "yeoman" class and actual owners of the soil, or a tenant-farmer group, or merely a plutocratic race of landholders, who, employing many hands, till their fifty acres each more for diversion than profit? The end of another century which may find New England in her rocky parts an English Cornwall or Devon, and in her more level areas an English Warwickshire, may answer the question. Meanwhile, such influences as the city boarder in the farm-house give us little light and less encouragement on the absorbing and pressing enigma, particularly that major part of it which bears upon the matter of making the young Eastern farmer less restless and more willing to abide on the ancestral acres.

THE INDUSTRIAL SITUATION IN FRANCE.

THE French Government having sown the wind by refusing to protect the omnibus-drivers who wished to work, against the assaults of the strikers and the mob that sympathized with them, is now reaping the whirlwind in an epidemic of strikes. The employees of the horse railroads at Marseilles, at Lyons, at Bordeaux, and at Toulouse followed the example of the Paris omnibus-drivers. Then the infection extended to the employees of the steam railroads, nearly all the great roads being affected, and great exertions being made by the members of the labor unions to make the strike universal. The bakers had their turn; the hair-dressers, the grocers, the shoemakers, all manifested discontent; and the workmen in the sewers joined in the demand for improved conditions.

The Municipal Council of Paris, a body as mischievously disposed as the Board of Aldermen in New York, eagerly took advantage of the opportunity to interpose in behalf of the unions. They proceeded to vote pecuniary aid "to the families of workmen who were out of employment," and the unions whose members were on strike very naturally considered that this was a subvention of their cause by the State. They assembled the striking workmen, and it was arranged that the sums to be distributed by the Municipal Council should be paid over by the recipients to their respective unions. The first vote of the Council was for but 2,000 francs, but, as the General Government apparently did not dare to veto it, it was presently followed by a larger vote intended for the benefit of other strikers, whose union in its turn directed its members to hand over their gratuities to the common treasury. This went on until the railroad strikes took place, a disturbance upon a much larger scale than those that preceded, when the Council again undertook, by the same transparent subterfuge, to furnish pecuniary aid to the unions of the strikers.

The situation of the general Government was by this time alarming. The employees of the railroads were engaged in work that affected the public interest very materially, although not directly employed by the Government, while the workers on the sewers were paid directly by the city. These workmen had formed a union, and there were reports of projected unions in the postal and telegraphic services. Certainly the families of the sewer workmen would suffer as much from want as those of other workmen out of employment, and they were therefore entitled to assistance from the Municipal Council. This aid would, of course, have been transferred to the union, and the extraordinary spectacle would have resulted of the city of Paris furnishing pecuniary assistance to an organized body of workmen on strike against the very city that was aiding them. This prospect overcame the timidity of the Government, and the Prefect of the Seine was at last forced to oppose the granting of further subventions of this kind, and, as his opposition was unavailing, to interpose his veto. Since then the French papers have been devoting themselves to explaining why unions of laborers employed by private persons are permissible and laudable and their strikes legitimate, while laborers employed by the State should neither unite nor strike. The distinctions are somewhat finely drawn, but the exigencies of the situation are such as to require that they should be made.

The railroad strike was not so extensive as the strikers hoped to make it, although it excited grave apprehensions for a time, and the present attack of the strike mania is probably over, but the future is by no means unclouded. As one of the members of the Paris Council declared, in reply to the contention of the Prefect that he did not need to treat with his employees through the medium of a union, the unions are bodies recognized by law. The State compelled the omnibus company to recognize the authority of the unions; how can it decline to recognize this authority when its own affairs are involved? As a matter of fact, the French Government has been for some time travelling upon a road that leads to eventual disaster. The compulsory-insurance scheme, upon which we have recently commented, is only one of a number of Socialistic experiments. A project for the establishment of a bureau of labor under the care of the Government has recently been brought forward, and the limitation of the hours of labor for women and children, with the necessary accompaniments of a force of Government inspectors of factories, will beyond question soon be established by law. Such experiments may not be disastrous in a country like England, where the pressure of taxation is light and the general spirit of the people is conservative, but in a society composed of elements so inflammable as those which exist in France, radical changes are perilous. The natural form in which discontent manifests itself there is in attempts to overthrow the Government, and the rapid formation of trade unions is likely to result in their participation in these attempts unless they are placated. To placate them, however, as the recent events have shown, leads directly to assisting them in their strikes, and to the formation of unions among Government employees. Whichever policy is adopted by the Government, it will encounter difficulties, and the difficulties to be encountered in steering a middle course will be even greater. It is easy to begin with a policy of opportunism, but this becomes harder and harder to follow, and ends in collapse.

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL.

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL was born at the residence called Elmwood in Cambridge, Mass., February 22, 1819. He came of a family which in every generation has rendered public service in some form. His father, the Rev. Charles Lowell, D.D., was prominent in his day as a clergyman, though now best remembered for the wholesome brevity of his sermons; he was one of the conspicuous early Unitarians, although he never would accept that or any other denominational name. Dr. Lowell's father was the Hon. John Lowell, United States Chief Justice for the New England circuit, who has permanent fame as author of that clause in the Massachusetts Constitution which abolished slavery, and it is worth noticing that he was also the author of an English poem in the Harvard "Pietas et Gratulatio" of 1761. Judge Lowell's father was the Rev. John Lowell, a clergyman of Newburyport, Mass., and there now hangs at Elmwood a painted panel representing this worthy divine, with several others, sitting around a table with pipes and tobacco, the motto being appended, "In necessariis unitas, in non necessariis libertas, in omnibus caritas." The father of the Rev. John Lowell was Percival Lowell, a merchant, who came from Bristol, England, in 1639 and settled in Newbury, Mass. James Russell Lowell was thus of the fifth generation from one of the founders of New England. His brother, the Rev. R. T. S. Lowell, is also an author, as is his sister, Mrs. S. R. Putnam; and among his kinsmen, not through direct descent, have been John Lowell, the prolific pamphleteer of Madison's Administration; Francis Cabot Lowell, the founder of the cotton manufactures of New England; John Lowell, the founder of the Lowell Institute in Boston; the present Judge (John) Lowell; and the younger authors, Percival, Abbott Lawrence, and Edward Jackson Lowell. Two of James Russell Lowell's brother's children, Gen. Charles Russell Lowell and Lieut. James Jackson Lowell, were killed during the civil war. It is doubtful whether any family name in New England represents so large a total of conspicuous usefulness.

Prof. Lowell's mother, Harriet (Spence) Lowell, was the daughter of Robert Traill Spence of Portsmouth, N. H., an officer of the United States Navy. She is described by those who knew her as affording the greatest contrast to her gentle and dignified husband, she having a strain of Celtic blood which gave her great vivacity, wit, and impetuosity of manner, all combining to make her very attractive. She lost her intellectual powers with advancing years, and was the subject, under those circumstances, of one of the most powerful and pathetic of her son's poems—"The Darkened Mind."

The house in which Lowell was born was one of several fine old mansions on Brattle Street (Cambridge)—a street bearing the name of a prominent Loyalist of the Revolution—known in the last generation as "Tory Row." The Baroness Riedesel in her Me-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

moirs has described these houses as they were during the Restoration, when occupied by a series of families all connected, all rich and prosperous, and all upon the Tory side. Elmwood was built in 1767 by Lieut.-Gen. Thomas Oliver, and was the scene of a popular outbreak in 1774, when the occupant was compelled by a mob to decline office as Mandamus Counsellor in these pithy terms: "My house at Cambridge being surrounded by about 4,000 people, in compliance with their command I sign my name, Thomas Oliver." The house was afterwards occupied by Gov. Elbridge Gerry, from whom the Rev. Dr. Lowell purchased it. The beautiful trees which now adorn it were mostly planted by him. Nearly opposite, across Brattle Street, in another of those large colonial houses, was kept for many years the classical school of William Wells, who then had the reputation of fitting boys better than any one else for Harvard College. This was probably true, but it was nevertheless a rough, old-fashioned school of the English type, upon which none of its boarding pupils look back with much pleasure. Lowell, however, was a day scholar, as was his life-long friend and fellow-worker, William Story; and among the younger pupils who afterwards developed literary tastes were T. W. Higginson and Charles C. Perkins. The training was mainly classical, Mr. Wells being himself the author of an excellent Latin grammar and editor of the first American edition of Cicero.

From this school Lowell entered Harvard College in 1834, taking his degree of A.B. in 1838, and that of A.M. in 1841. He was a college classmate of his friend Story, of Hon. Charles Devens (of Boston), Hon. Rufus King (of Cincinnati), Dr. G. B. Loring (our recent Minister to Portugal), Gen. H. L. Eustis, the Rev. Drs. E. A. Washburn, Rufus Ellis, and J. I. T. Coolidge. Socially, he was one of the favorites of his class and one of the editors of the College periodical, *Harvardiana;* but he was rather irregular as a student, and was suspended on the eve of graduation for a boyish escapade. This prevented the delivery of his class poem, but it was subsequently published without his name, and partly for this reason has now become so rare that copies of it command a high price. It contains some boyish satire upon the abolitionists and other reformers, but showed the nascent spirit of reform in an eloquent protest against the eviction of the Cherokees, and also in a tribute to the Rev. Dr. Channing. He never reprinted it among his works, but it is very probable that its publication did something to commit him to the career of letters.

A far more powerful influence was, however, brought to bear upon him, in the same direction, soon after. A young poet's love is always a prime factor in his career, but rarely one so altogether controlling as in the case of Lowell. The object of his attachment was Maria White, the sister of one of his classmates. She lived in Watertown, the town adjoining Cambridge, where her father was perhaps the most influential citizen; she had a good deal of beauty, and this of a thoughtful and poetic type, and, under a peculiarly serene and gentle aspect, concealed great strength and fervor of nature. Lowell was, as he has since said of himself, by "temperament and education of a conservative tone." She was, on the other hand, a natural reformer, and, though partly educated in a convent, had already thrown herself with ardent sympathy into the reformatory spirit of the times, and especially the anti-slavery movement; she had also attended Margaret Fuller's classes. That this reformatory spirit was with her a matter of temperament as well as conviction—something in the blood—is indicated by the fact that her brother, only a few years older, gave up all for reform, travelled about the country with Frederick Douglass and others as an anti-slavery apostle, and afterwards gave equal energy to the temperance agitation.

All this reformatory atmosphere determined Lowell's career: his love made him a poet, the object of his love made him a reformer. The same end might have been reached in other ways, but this was the way in which it actually came. For the rest, he and his betrothed became the centre of a circle of very clever and joyous young people, who had several pleasant headquarters in Boston, Cambridge, and Watertown, and who all accepted these two lovers as their natural leaders, or, as the phrase among them was, their "king and queen." Lowell was then studying law, or just essaying his powers in that direction; he could not yet afford to be married, and it was understood that the prospective father-in-law withheld his consent until Pegasus should have learned to work in harness, thus giving the needed flavor of opposition. Meanwhile, the love affair interested the whole circle. It was a composite romance; there was, moreover, a theory of publicity about it—it was too sacred *not* to be spoken of—and the love-letters of the young people were shown freely from hand to hand. Perhaps it was all a little exaggerated, but it was pretty and innocent, and the real genius and earnest purposes of the parties gave it a certain dignity. They meant to lead a life as ideal as that of Dante and Beatrice, and, incidentally, to reform the world.

Lowell's first volume, 'A Year's Life' (1841), shows primarily the influence of Maria White, and secondarily that of Keats and Tennyson; he and his betrothed being among the first readers of the two thin volumes which then imperfectly predicted the well-earned fame of the present Laureate. As the first work of a youth of twenty-one, 'A Year's Life' had doubtless much that was crude and imitative, but it struck a note then new in our literature, and found at once a circle of warm admirers who did not hesitate, with youthful daring, to claim that the most gifted of American poets had appeared. Margaret Fuller, who later criticised him in a more trenchant way, said acutely of the work that its best encomium was to be found in the perhaps exaggerated admiration of these young people; and Lowell has since been his own severest critic by omitting most of it from his published works. Perhaps he has done this too rigidly, but it nevertheless remains in literature as a beautiful example of shaping influence from a pure and devoted love.

Its reception, at any rate, weakened his hold upon the law, his brief experience in which is best recorded in a paper by him entitled "The First Client," and published in the Boston *Miscellany*. This periodical was an outgrowth of the "Brothers and Sisters," as the coterie of young friends called themselves, it being edited by Nathan Hale, one of the leaders of the group, and he being aided by the contributions of Lowell and Story. The two volumes edited by Hale (1842–3) are still worth inspection as a landmark in American literature, exhibiting the first step out of the *Godey's Lady's Book* period towards the magazine of to-day. The fashion-plate was still retained, the type was dingy, the criticisms were conventional, but a step was taken. Lowell himself attempted a still further step in the *Pioneer*, a magazine which he essayed to conduct, in 1843, after Hale had surrendered the *Miscellany*.

The *Pioneer* took at once a higher stand than any previous American magazine. The element of costume was now wholly disregarded, and there were substituted "outlines" from Flaxman, as being better than "a host of tawdry fashion plates." The editors secured the best corps of purely literary contributors to be had in the country—Hawthorne, Poe, John Neal, T. W. Parsons; Elizabeth Barrett sent one poem; Maria White printed two really noble and beautiful sonnets, addressed to her betrothed, but without her name; while Lowell and Story wrote profusely under various names. Whether it was too good to live is now uncertain, but it died after its third number, leaving, however, a promise which gave great encouragement to the later *Putnam's Magazine* and the final *Atlantic Monthly*. After all, the absence of capital may have been the simpler key to its fate. Lowell could have commanded very little, in those days, of this essential requisite, while his associate, Robert Carter, had less. But Lowell's poems were in demand in a moderate way; indeed, it was considered quite a triumph of the muse when he was offered $100 for ten poems to appear in *Graham's Magazine*. The same periodical contained a very eulogistic paper on the new poet, signed "P.," and generally attributed to Poe, but really the work of the late Charles J. Peterson of Philadelphia.

The following year Lowell was married and entered on a wedded life which fortunately did not disappoint its early promise. He and his young wife took up their abode at Elmwood with the Rev. Dr. Lowell; and Fredrika Bremer remarked, on her visit to this country, that it was the only house she had entered where two successive generations had been born. Two children were there given to them, of whom the elder, Blanche, died young, only the younger surviving—now Mrs. Edward Burnett, who still resides with her children at Elmwood.

Lowell's volume called 'Poems' (1844) showed a maturer development of his powers, although, as often happens with young authors, the long poem, "A Legend of Brittany," was one of its least successful portions. More significant was the sonnet to Wendell Phillips, in which he distinctly took sides with the abolitionists, thus predicting the current of many of his coming years. The sonnet on the opposite page, "In Absence," was by Maria Lowell. Next followed the 'Vision of Sir Launfal' (1845), and in a few years his first prose work, 'Conversations on Some of the Old Poets' (1848), his wife contributing to this also, in the form of a graceful illuminated cover which she designed. This volume was based on his papers on the English dramatists in the *Boston Miscellany*. He chose for his book that conversational form which Landor had then made popular, but not permanent; there is very little of dramatic variation in Lowell's two interlocutors, and the form really added nothing. The style was, moreover, somewhat crude, and had a certain cumbrousness from which he did not free himself for many years; but the book was a work of love, represented a great deal of reading, and showed the author's wonted taste in selections and citations. In his preface he makes an apology for the defects of the book, on the ground of haste, but makes no apology for the haste itself, and alludes, rather defiantly, to that introduction of his anti-slavery opinions which was by no

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

means to his discredit. Another volume, entitled 'Poems: Second Series,' followed in 1848, containing a touching poem by his wife, "The Morning Glory." It included also his ringing verses entitled "The Present Crisis," which had been first published anonymously in the Boston *Courier*, and had attracted more attention, perhaps, than anything he had written, being at first attributed to Whittier. Lowell had now, for some time, been established, in Willis's phrase, as "the best-launched poet of his time."

He had by this date thrown in his lot with the abolitionists, was a vice-president of anti-slavery societies, a corresponding editor of the *Anti-Slavery Standard* (1848), and a frequent attendant at conventions, although he never spoke. Moreover, he had begun in 1846 to write for the Boston *Courier*, under the name of Homer Wilbur, those satirical verses which were to give him perhaps his greatest fame. Such was his personal reputation for wit that no one was surprised at his writing them, but his best friends were hardly prepared for the extraordinary combination of talent which appeared in the collected volume of 'Biglow Papers' (1848)—the learning, the allusion, the Cotton-Mather quality of the whole setting of the book, alloyed only here and there by a visible touch of Carlylism, then so prevalent. Twenty years after, in returning a second time to the 'Papers,' he wrote in his preface a full explanation of the circumstances under which the original book was written.

During the same year appeared his other work of humorous genius, 'The Fable for Critics' (1848). This was begun as a mere squib, to amuse a friend in New York, but grew upon his hands, and was published anonymously, yet with little attempt at concealment. It had an immediate success, and had many brilliant and many graceful passages. It cannot be fully estimated, however, without remembering that it was written at a period more trenchant than now — the Poe period — when literary personalities were still in order, and when it was considered becoming in literature, as now in politics, to "get even" with an opponent, as did Lowell in this case with Margaret Fuller and with Professor Bowen of Harvard University. Having become an associate of the latter in the University, he modified that part of the poem, and it was hoped by some of his friends that he would also modify that in regard to Miss Fuller, whose heroic Italian life and tragic death had meanwhile disarmed personal criticism; but he never did.

In 1851 he visited Europe with his wife, whose health, never strong, became more and more delicate until her death, October 27, 1853, formed another era in his life. It seemed to produce almost a reaction against former scenes and companionships, now painful through bitter association with her; and although he allowed his name to stand in connection with anti-slavery societies, he was generally regarded as having cooled in sympathy. This was unjustly attributed to his becoming, in 1855, a professor in Harvard University, then rightly regarded as very conservative. He visited Europe again, wrote in *Putnam's Magazine*, and became, in 1857, the joint editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*. In this capacity he showed much acumen and ability, with some want of method and systematic industry. Later (1863–1872) he was editor of the *North American Review*, with his life-long friend Norton as co-editor. Soon after his wife's death his brief 'Life of Keats' was published (1854); prefixed to a new edition of that poet; this was, however, probably written earlier, and for nearly ten years after her death he printed nothing important. Even then his 'Fireside Travels' (1864) was almost wholly a reprint of papers written long before, and seemed hardly enough of a harvest to justify so long a fallow period, although it contained the delightful and semi-autobiographical "Cambridge Thirty Years Ago."

In 1855 Mr. Lowell was appointed to the Harvard professorship vacated by his friend Longfellow, his title being that of "Smith Professor of the French and Spanish Languages and Literatures and Professor of Belles-Lettres." In this capacity he gave lectures and had classes; but there was a certain constitutional indolence about him which made academic life not altogether attractive; his pupils sometimes complained that he came into the recitation-room yawning, and their parents that he put a little cynicism into his interpretations of the great historic legends—such as may be seen, for instance, in his poem of "Blondel." He was always personally popular, however, and reflected distinction on the University by his character and attainments. In 1857 he married his second wife, Miss Frances Dunlap, of Portland, Maine, an accomplished and agreeable woman, who had been his daughter's governess. To this marriage no children were born.

Meantime the storm of the Civil War had begun to gather over the land; three of Lowell's nephews—Gen. C. R. Lowell, Lieut. J. J. Lowell, and Lieut. J. J. Putnam—fell in the struggle, and it seemed to give a new impulse to his productiveness. The second series of the 'Biglow Papers' followed (1865), and his magnificent "Ode" was recited at the Harvard commemoration services, July 21, 1865, taking rank at once as the one great poem of the Civil War. A period of new activity followed; there succeeded in quick succession 'Under the Willows, and Other Poems' (1869), 'The Cathedral' (1870), 'Among My Books' (1870, second series, 1876), 'My Study Windows' (1871), and 'Three Memorial Poems' (1876). He was a Presidential elector in this last year, and in the following was appointed by President Hayes (of whose Cabinet his classmate, Gen. Devens, was a member) as United States Minister to Spain. This was the beginning of his diplomatic career.

The Spanish mission had been by tradition, since the days of Irving, a literary distinction rather than a public function. Mr. Lowell found the social duties very agreeable. Without the training of a diplomat, he had many of the essential qualities—cultivation, *bonhomie*, patience, and a ready wit. Even a certain indolence of nature stood him in stead, since a large part of diplomatic duty consists in waiting. On his transfer to the Court of St. James's, he found some duties more complex awaiting him, in the settlement of various questions relating to Irish-American "suspects"; and he encountered some criticisms at home which now seem to have been unreasonable. His social accomplishments made him exceedingly popular in London, and if this popularity seemed to lie rather in the direction of the conservative than of the more progressive English sentiment, this proceeded evidently from circumstances, and not—as was at one time widely reported—from a want of proper American feeling. Any doubts on this subject were at once removed, in all reasonable minds, by his remarkable address on "Democracy," delivered (October 6, 1884) at Birmingham, England, on assuming the Presidency of the Birmingham and Midland Institute. A more admirable statement has never been made of the working, not merely of guarded republican institutions, but of the principle of democracy itself up to the present day, and it will go permanently on record as a broad statement of the very spirit of the age by one of its finest minds.

It was published in a volume, 'Democracy, and Other Addresses' (1885). This contains a variety of admirable addresses, mostly literary, and all delivered in England, except the address at Chelsea, Mass., and that pronounced (November 8, 1886) at the 250th anniversary of the founding of Harvard University. The whole volume shows a very distinct literary advance above all his previous work; there is a mellowness of tone and a judicial quality which were not always visible in his earlier critical writings. The style is terser, and wholly disarms some of the criticisms which had been earlier made upon him, not wholly without reason, for too great accumulation of metaphor and too great prolixity in the structure of his sentences. These defects, all growing in reality from an excess of wealth, were keenly pointed out long since by Prof. W. C. Wilkinson in 'A Free Lance in the Field of Life and Letters,' and by John Foster Kirk in *Lippincott's Magazine;* but their objections certainly do not hold against this his crowning volume.

The second Mrs. Lowell died in London, after a long illness, in February, 1885. His diplomatic life closed in 1885, not abruptly, like Motley's, but with his full consent, and in the most cordial relations with his successor, Mr. E. J. Phelps, for whom Lowell predicted at the outset that successful career which followed. Returning home, Lowell resumed, in a slight way, his connection with the University, being, however, transferred soon after to an "emeritus" position. He delivered lectures before the Lowell Institute on the old English dramatists, and gave various public addresses. For a time he resided with his daughter in Southborough, Mass., but in 1889 returned with her and her children, after prolonged absence, to his birthplace, and occupied himself during a period of broken health in a Life of his old friend Hawthorne, for the "American Men o Letters" Series.

It is too early to anticipate the judgment of posterity on Lowell's position in literature. All will now admit him to have been th author of the finest single poem yet produced in this country, the "Commemoration Ode"; to have reached in his 'Biglow Papers' the high-water mark of American humor; to have been unquestionably, despite all necessary allowances, our foremost critic; and to have done more, probably, than any man to command for our institutions, in all their aspects, the respect of the English-speaking world. His fame was not, like that of his friend Longfellow—or even like that of Cooper, Mrs. Stowe, and Bret Harte—international; few of his writings, if any, were translated into other languages than his own. But this is, after all, a very uncertain test of merit; and it is probable that no American author, unless it be Emerson, has achieved a securer hold upon a lasting fame. In his political aspect, nothing can be more certain than that his reputation will grow with time, and that, to say nothing of the vigor and originality of his thought, his independence, which of late years brought down upon him a shower of partisan abuse hardly to be matched in any country, or in any age, for indecency, will be rated among his crowning glories.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

SWITZERLAND, 1291-1891.

BERN, July 30, 1891.

THE Swiss Republic is at the present moment in the fever heat of celebration. On the 1st of August the Confederation commemorates the six hundredth anniversary of its birth; on the 15th, the city of Bern the seven hundredth recurrence of its foundation day. For both of these occasions elaborate preparations have been made, for Bern will celebrate no less magnificently than the Union, which it may, perhaps, surpass in artistic effects. Hence, there is much busy excitement and anticipation, much preparation for strange visitors, and some patriotic reflections.

In the midst of all this, and in the summer season, one might suppose that politics would drop out of sight, and the subject of constitutional reform be left to rest till cold weather. But in this very centennial year, and almost in connection with the celebrations themselves, several constitutional changes have taken place which strongly emphasize the historical reflections which the time and season have already called forth. The Republic has taken the most advanced step towards democracy upon which it has ever ventured, namely, the application of the Initiative, or what may be better called the Imperative Petition, to Federal laws. The institution of the Referendum, or the submission of laws just enacted to popular vote when demanded by 30,000 citizens, was already in existence; but the power to demand that a given project be made law has just this month been assumed by the people. On Sunday, July 7, the necessary constitutional amendment was voted upon in a general election and passed. The vote was very light, but the majority in favor of the law quite decisive. A special session of the Federal Assembly was called for July 27, and yesterday the law which sets the Initiative in operation passed the lower house.

The contrast between the Confederation of 1291 and that of 1891 in the matter of central government could hardly have been more strikingly emphasized. In the former there was the merest figment of a Federal Administration, for rules of common action among the States were but just sufficient to keep peace among themselves and the enemy from the door. Even three hundred years ago, when the semblance of central government had been made much greater by regular diets and the appointment of certain standing officials, there was little in the Confederation beyond the power to recommend law to the cantons, and the latter might do as they pleased about agreeing to the suggestion or even about obeying what the majority agreed to. In fact, it is within the last half century that the real Federal Government has grown up, for before the Constitution of 1848 there was only the shadow of it.

Viewed from one standpoint, this new law is a return to the original state of things, for then everything was purely democratic. Laws, wars, or expeditions were submitted to the assembled folk for approval, and according to their vote only could matters be undertaken. But in those days, and even almost to our own day, the State was everything in the mind of the citizen, and the Confederation as little as possible. The placing of the enactment of law more completely in the hands of the people, while it seems in some sense a degradation of the legislator, or of those whose duty it is to suggest measures, is, nevertheless, at this juncture, an additional bulwark for central government, for the people as a whole are to vote for what interests the whole Confederation, and the voter widens his sympathies every time he exercises such a right. As patriotism is not wanting here, so neither is sectionalism and jealousy of central government; hence a measure which makes the State as a whole stronger may be viewed with toleration.

The substance of the new law is to the effect that when 50,000 voters petition for an amendment to the Constitution, or for the adoption of a statute, the Federal Assembly *must* submit the requested proposition within a given time to popular vote. The Government may at the same time present a project of its own for choice, but in any case there can be no avoidance of the duty of giving the people a chance to say whether they want such a law or not. If a majority of all votes cast, and at the same time a majority of all the States, are in favor of it, the proposition becomes law.

The effect is to take out of the hands of the Federal Legislature the power to delay or postpone the consideration of a law which public sentiment seems to demand. For example, if fifty thousand citizens had demanded the passage of an International Copyright Law, Congress could not have postponed the matter for year after year, but must have formulated a law within six months and then submitted it to the approval of the people. Yet this is only a passive instrument for the introduction of law. It still remains to be seen what use will be made of it, or whether it will be used at all. The Initiative has been in existence in a number of the State constitutions for a considerable time, but has been very little employed. Switzerland has long been acquainted with the theory of the subject, but has used the machinery hardly enough to learn the effect. Some are fearful that radical reformers will spring unripe legislation on the country—for instance, the election of the Cabinet by the people—and will get enough votes to carry it through. There is a little trembling before the labor vote, but all is in the uncertain future, and it will not do to prophesy as yet.

Another matter of political importance, also to be charged to this month of July, was the trial of the Ticino revolutionists. It will be remembered that last October and November the Liberal party in Ticino became tired of waiting for a change of government by regular means, planned a *coup d'état*, and thrust out the Conservative administration by force of arms. The Federal Government was obliged to interfere, restored the previous administration, and indicted a number of the leaders of the insurrection. The trial took place in Zürich, as it was thought that a German jury would be more cool-blooded than one in Ticino or in a Romance canton. Great interest was felt all over Switzerland in the examination of the witnesses, for they represented the ultra-Conservative element in general politics as well as in Ticino. The defence was, that the party in power had got into office and maintained itself there by all sorts of corruption, and had driven the Opposition to desperation; that appeals to the Federal Assembly and the Federal courts had been delayed for years, and that total subordination to bossism and priestcraft was the only alternative. This was the drift of the cross-examination and of the arguments for the defence, and, much to the surprise of everybody, the jury brought in a verdict of acquittal. There was universal sympathy with the revolutionists among Liberals of other States, but the expectation was that they would be found guilty and then pardoned, or only nominally punished. The effect of the verdict is to put a premium on revolution and to injure regular modes of party government—a proceeding which stands quite out of line with the steady legal theories and practice of Switzerland. The Conservative papers set up a perfect howl of objurgation, and prophesied everything evil. The better class of Liberal journals were also surprised and shocked, but did not think the precedent would be followed. The judges of the court in fact rebuked the action of the jury by condemning the man Castione, who was accused of killing a member of the Government in the mêlée, to eight years' servitude with a heavy fine. Castione was *contumax*, and therefore will not serve till caught, but the sentence was for treason and insurrection, in direct contradiction to the verdict of the jury.

I have been much interested in the operations of the Federal Assembly in its sittings of the past few days. I came purposely some distance to take advantage of the extra session, and felt amply repaid in the opportunity it gave for comparison again with our American procedure. The occasion was particularly favorable because the Assembly felt that there was little to do, and one could in a short time follow the whole public history of a measure. The session had been ordered out of the regular time, but the lower house at the outset declared that it was only a continuance, and re-elected the chairman and remaining organization of the previous session. The Senate differed as to the definition, but elected the same organization by ballot. Both houses also agreed to consider other matters than the one named in the call. The bill concerning the introduction of the Initiative was the project of the Federal Cabinet, and had already been for a few days in the hands of a committee of the House, for a favorable vote on the amendment had been anticipated and a contingent committee appointed. According to the usual practice, the Presidents of the Houses had also met beforehand and agreed as to which branch should first consider the bill. It was decided that the House of Representatives should begin the discussion. I have used the term "lower house" in this letter out of regard for American analogies; but that is hardly the proper term here. It is rather strange to an American to find on the general order of the day that the Nationalrath stands at the top and the Ständerath (or Senate) takes second place; but that is really the order of their importance in the public mind.

The sitting opened on Monday afternoon at three o'clock. The most distant member might have left his home the same morning, and reached Bern in time for the roll-call. After the preliminaries of organization, and a few words from the chairman in memory of a deceased Senator, the report of the committee on the Initiative Bill was called for. There were in reality two chairmen of this committee, one to represent the German, the other the French members of the House. Whenever any official statement was made, or explanation of a clause given, the report in German was followed by a statement from the French chairman; so, also, in the case of all announcements by the Speaker of the House and in the reading of motions, there was a double presentation. The discussion of the bill was not particularly animated. No great principle was at stake, for that had been settled in the Constitutional amendment. It was only a question of detail, and though opinions varied a good deal, an agreement was reached with comparative ease. The committee varied somewhat from the project of the Federal Council, and now and then the member of the Cabinet who had the matter in charge rose to explain and

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

give his opinion. The House, however, generally sustained the committee. Under the favorable conditions of the subject, the bill was taken up, debated, amended, and passed by a large majority, with apparent moderation, in two sessions on Tuesday. J. M. VINCENT.

P. S., July 31.—The Senate has decided, quite unexpectedly, to postpone the consideration of the Initiative question until the December session. So the purpose for which the extraordinary assembly was called, has been defeated; but it is only a question of a few months before the introduction of the law will be accomplished substantially as passed by the Nationalrath.

Correspondence.

THE JEWISH QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If your correspondent "L. N. D." did not think it likely that I had been "hired with Russian rubles" to write my article on the Jewish question in the *North American Review*, he might perhaps as well have refrained from repeating that suggestion. His own hypothesis is, that I "am simply filled with hatred against those whom I think too weak to resist oppression, whether they be Irish rack-rented tenants or Jewish artisans and students in Russia." He may very well be ignorant of my history, and not know that I pleaded to the best of my power the cause of the slave against the slave-owner, of the black peasantry of Jamaica against the tyranny of the whites, of the aborigines in the British colonies against colonial inhumanity, of the Ionian Islanders against imperial aggrandizement, and of the Hindus, after the Sepoy mutiny, against imperial vengeance. More than once I have run a social gauntlet in doing the very reverse of that which your correspondent assumes it is my propensity to do.

As to "the Irish rack-rented tenants," it happens that I was the first, I believe, to present their case in its historical aspect; at all events, I so presented it as to win the approval and friendship of leading Irish patriots in that day. Like John Bright, I was opposed to home rule because, like him, I thought that it meant separation, civil war, and a renewal of the calamities of the past. Like him, also, I have always believed that the malady of Ireland was economical, not political, and that the remedy must be economical also. Events surely have so far justified our course that my motives need not be taken to have been vile.

There appears to be reason to believe that peasants in Russia and other countries where Jewish usury has prevailed, have suffered at the hands of the usurer not less than the rack-rented tenant of Ireland suffered at the hands of his landlord. I do not justify or excuse the deplorable violence of the revolt, but I submit that a revolt was the almost inevitable consequence of the unhappy relations into which the two nationalities had been brought. I think it is clearly proved that the origin of the outbreaks was not religious, as has been generally supposed, but economical and social. I think these facts, if they are facts, ought to be recognized, because otherwise the true solution of this desperate problem cannot be found. Nor do I see why Russian men and women should be allowed to rest under the imputation of hideous and fiendish atrocities when impartial evidence can be adduced to show that the imputation is unfounded.

About the present policy of the Russian Government I have said nothing, because I do not know, nor does any one seem to know, exactly what it is. Mr. Arnold White has been sent by the friends of the Jews to inquire, and the Russian Government seems to oppose no obstacles to his investigations. There was a letter from him the other day in the London *Times*, in which he said that a gang of men who were being led through the street in chains had been pointed out to him as persecuted Jews, but he had afterwards learned that they were convicts. The Czar is called by "L. N. D." a "Nero," but he once had liberal tendencies. It is too likely, however, that he has been goaded to measures of violence by that constant dread of assassination which so few men's nerves or characters withstand. If he has, this seems to be another reason for giving up murder and murder clubs as instruments of political reform. Nobody believes that Russia is ripe for popular government, even if the whole imperial family could be destroyed.

To speak of the Jews collectively as "the weak" is a great mistake. They are not weak, but formidably strong. They are lords of money in a world which bows to it; in a world largely governed by journalism, they have a great and increasing influence over the press. There is a general dread of their power and their resentment. In granting insertion to an independent article on this question, the editor of the *North American Review* has given no ordinary proof of his own independence.

Yours faithfully, GOLDWIN SMITH.

P. S.—Let me take the opportunity of mentioning that the title of the article in the *North American*, "New Light on the Jewish Question," is not, as some critics assume, the author's, but editorial.

THE OLIPHANTS AND HARRIS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Not having read the Life of Laurence Oliphant reviewed in the *Nation* of the 9th of July, I do not know how much of the conclusions in the review belong to the book and how much to the reviewer; but as I knew both Oliphant and his wife (the latter, indeed, being a distant relative of our family), and as I had talked with them at a period long after their abandonment of the community of Harris, *i. e.*, when they were in Athens after a stay in the East, I can state their contradictions of the popular traditions even then current as to their relations with Harris. I asked Laurence particularly about the story of his having been warned by what you term "a strange superstition," which is an allusion to the story of his having refused to return to America during the siege of Paris at the call of Harris, and having been warned by a discharge of musketry through his window, on which he left at once, considering it a warning from Providence, etc., and he assured me that the whole story was pure fiction, no such incident having ever taken place, no shot having ever been fired through his window, and the call of Harris to America being simply a statement that the business affairs of the community were in need of attention, and, as Harris had no business capacity, it was necessary that he, the only member of the community conversant with them, should be on the spot for the purpose. He declared the compulsion attributed to Harris over the acts of the members of his flock to be purely imaginary, other than that he taught that, to conquer the worldly propensities of human nature, it was necessary to do the things most unpleasing to one's natural tendencies.

He said, in words which struck me then as the expression of his inmost feeling, "They considered me mad because I had determined to sacrifice the world to God," adding that the real madness was in the contrary course. And Alice assured me in the most positive manner that there was no truth whatever in the story that Harris had ever had possession of her dowry, but that she had invested it and had then (*i. e.*, when we were together at Athens, I think, in 1882) the entire capital and the profits of the investment. She, too, denied in the most energetic manner the reported tyrannical interference of Harris in the conduct of the disciples; she herself chose the hard life she entered into at intervals as a means of conquering her self-indulgence, and she declared that these acts of discipline were in all cases voluntary and not enjoined by Harris, who was in an almost complete seclusion, ill, and sometimes not seen by them for a fortnight, devoted to meditation, and rarely interfering with the acts of his disciples. Her visit to California in particular she declared to me to be her own impulse, and in one case she undertook the work of a washerwoman with the same purpose. The expressions of their feelings as to the character of Harris in all that either of them said in our long conversations on the subject, were affectionate, respectful, and inconsistent with the assumption that he was either an impostor or a tyrant, or that the restraints he inculcated, rather than imposed, were anything more than the voluntary putting in practice of what he taught as to the necessity of subduing all the human tendencies to worldliness and self-indulgence; and this Alice repeatedly asserted and Laurence confirmed.

After her death Oliphant became utterly absorbed in the spiritual (as he believed it) intercourse with Alice in her new state; and as all know who have at any length studied this class of phenomena, absorption in the so-called spiritual intercourse leads rapidly to a more or less complete insanity. What may have been Laurence's conclusions in this state, or his opinions of Harris and his doctrines, I cannot conjecture; but when I saw and talked with him and Alice, he was in the perfect enjoyment of his reasoning powers and of the present life, and the testimony of both was directly contradictory of the conclusions of the review in the *Nation*, and, if those are also those of the book, of the book itself.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

PIEVE DI CADORE, July 29, 1891.

BOND OF UNION IN THE EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I cannot but think you have been doing the community a service in calling its attention to the existence of such a thing as intellectual honesty and to the need of it. To many persons it is as much a surprise to discover that "I believe" implies a direct intellectual process, as it is to discover a distinction between "I think" and "I know." It is a testimony to the higher standard of intellectual honesty demanded by our time, that the question what constitutes unity of belief with others is, so far as I am aware, a modern one. The demand for positiveness and activity in a belief has gone a long way since compulsory baptism by thousands in a river was regarded by the ecclesiastics of Charlemagne's time as sufficient conversion for the Saxons. To insist that the believer shall ask himself wherein lies his bond of unity with the past, is decidedly doing him a service.

But I cannot but think, too, that you, with

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

many others, miss the point when you make this unity with the past consist chiefly in assent to the result of an intellectual process. To many, a creed is like a business contract, where the terms have one definite meaning, clearly understood by all parties, and where, if any party attempts to vary the meaning, he may properly be arrested for breach of agreement. Any one who should allege in excuse for non-fulfilment of a business contract that by dollars he did not mean dollars but dimes, would be sent out of court with damages and derision. Now, is a creed a contract of this nature? The fundamental condition of a contract is wanting in the case of a creed. The terms have not one definite meaning, but meanings which differ in every age, and this difference cannot be prevented. The attempts of ecclesiastical councils to keep definitions the same, form one of the melancholy chapters of Church history. The term "God" must have a different meaning to every different person. If it is an intellectual result that is to constitute unity among believers, if it is having the same ideas, unity is impossible. And much of the upheaval going on in the various churches to-day arises from the fact that the machinery of a church is framed to secure the holding of the same ideas in common, which is now seen to be impossible, while yet unity is becoming daily more of a fact and more evident. We are puzzled by our success, for we have more unity than our machinery can handle.

I have nothing to say as to the way in which other churches should meet this difficulty, but it seems to me that the Episcopal Church, to which I belong, which has been supposed to be in this respect an especial offender, has in reality guarded herself from misconception on this point. She is supposed to be guilty partly because she retains in her Prayer-Book the Thirty-nine Articles, while it is acknowledged that these do not represent the theological belief of many of her members. But in reality these Articles have no confessional value whatever in the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States. They have never been adopted by that Church as an authoritative standard, as they are in the Church of England. They were placed in the American Prayer-Book as a compromise, with no statement of their legal position. Perhaps it is not wise to have on your premises a door-plate bearing the name of a former occupant; at all events, wise or not, when messages come to you intended for him, you are justified in sending them back.

Now, the Episcopal Church has herself officially declared how it is that she desires her members to hold their faith in common. It is not the having of the same ideas that she aims at. She regards it as a secondary matter whether her members hold their faith in the unity of intellectual apprehension or not. But she bids them all (Morning Prayer: Collect for All Conditions of Men) pray that they may "hold the faith in unity of spirit, in the bond of peace, and in righteousness of life." That is, the unity she seeks to foster among them is not an intellectual, but a spiritual unity, one of common aims rather than common apprehensions. Common apprehensions are indeed desirable for any intimacy of relationship and for work in common. Regarded as secondary, they constitute a rightful ground for the differences among the various churches and among members of the same church. But the bond of unity is primarily spiritual, that is, one in which stress is laid on the nature of the issues and aim rather than on the thought underlying them.

If it were generally understood that the bond binding Christians to the past and to one another is community of aim rather than identity of organization, ritual, or belief, valuable as these are in a secondary way, not only would many misapprehensions be avoided, but a larger unity would result than is possible with the view of a creed as a commercial contract. FREDERIC PALMER.

ANDOVER, MASS., August 6, 1891.

EVASIONS OF THE CONSTITUTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is an art, not ranking yet among the fine arts or the familiar arts of industry, which consists in defeating the Constitution without coming into direct collision with its provisions. Adepts in this art have flourished in the State of New York for many years, and in 1877 had carried their skill to such perfection as to elicit the remark from our highest court that "there may be ways for a Legislature to circumvent a constitutional provision without violating it."

One of these ways of circumvention is so to draft an act, or provision of an act, as to make it appear to be general, though it is, to all intents and purposes, local. This artifice has been practised in order to evade those clauses of the State Constitution which ordain that the "Legislature shall not pass a *private or local bill*" for the purpose of granting to corporations any exclusive privilege or franchise; and that "no *private or local bill* which may be passed by the Legislature shall embrace more than one subject, and that shall be expressed in the title." As those clauses of the organic law do not apply to general acts, the ingenuity of the legislative expert is exercised in presenting, with general features, an act which is particular in its purpose and must be local in its application. For example, the 36th section of the Rapid-Transit Act of 1875 was general in its form, because made applicable in general terms to "*any* elevated steam railway now in actual operation"; but, in fact, it was local because it could apply, and was intended to apply, only to the New York Elevated Road, that being the only elevated road at the time in "actual operation." The section conferred an exclusive privilege, and would have been unconstitutional if it had specified a particular corporation as the sole grantee of the privilege.

This legislative finesse in converting local into general laws is also exhibited in so classifying the cities of the State according to population that a particular city may alone constitute a class, and then legislating generally in relation to the class. Take, for example, the laws regulating the price of gas. The act of 1887 restricting the price of gas in Brooklyn to $1.60 per thousand feet, and the act of June 5, 1890, restricting such price to $1.50, treated only of such restriction, and that single subject was fairly indicated by the titles of those acts, as required by the Constitution, so as to give a reasonable notice of what was going on in the Legislature to all concerned.

But on June 7, 1890, another statute was passed under the title of "An Act in relation to transportation corporations," and section 70 of this long and complicated statute of 163 sections restricts the price of gas to $1.25 per thousand feet "*in any city in this State having a population of 800,000 or over.*" It is certain that this section was not intended to apply, and will never apply, to any other than the cities of New York and Brooklyn. Even if it be supposable that Buffalo, the next largest city, will reach a population of 800,000 in the next century, no Legislature should be charged with the supreme folly of now attempting to regulate the price of gas in that city in 1990. But if the said section, though thus local in fact, had been made local in terms by naming New York and Brooklyn as the only cities in which the price of gas was thus restricted, it would have offended against one of the clauses of the Constitution before quoted, because such restriction, which is the subject of the section, is in no wise indicated in the title of the act in which it is concealed. Therefore, in order to evade the Constitution, the trick of city classification was resorted to, and New York and Brooklyn, instead of being designated by name, are merely described in general terms as "any city having a population of 800,000 or over."

To prohibit, as was done by the constitutional amendment of 1874, the creation of a monopoly by a private or local law is obviously of no avail, if local laws can at pleasure be changed into general by the skill of the draughtsman. Under such conditions, the only effect of that amendment of 1874 is to make unscrupulous corporations pay for the trick of evading it in addition to paying for the monopoly. A special charter in the innocent guise of a general law may well command an extra perquisite.

It will occur to the intelligent reader that evasions so simple and transparent must at once be detected by the courts. Detected they are, but not exposed. More than once it has been judicially announced that the Court of Appeals will not look beneath the face of a statute in order to find an *arrière pensée*; that if a law be general in its terms, general that court should declare it to be. In the old English jurisprudence statutes were called *constitutiones*, because deemed so deeply imbued with the spirit of the Constitution. Now, if there is any way to dodge the letter of the Constitution, the Legislature is not concerned about its spirit; and why should it be, when the courts declare that "the spirit of a constitution may be disregarded and yet its letter observed"?

If, as the great Marshall said, "the judicial power is coextensive with the legislative, and capable of deciding every judicial question which grows out of the Constitution and laws," then it was hardly becoming for the Court of Appeals to give a construction to the 36th section of the Rapid-Transit Act before mentioned which Judge Earl admitted "might leave the way open to great abuses of legislative power." Either that court should be able to afford some effective protection against such abuses, or the guardianship of the Constitution should not remain in its nerveless hands. Or perhaps the Constitution should be so amended as to require that court to pass upon the constitutionality of bills affecting substantial rights before they become laws.

Wherever we turn, we see it written and hear it declared that the Constitution, as "the voice of the people speaking in their sovereign capacity," is paramount to all other laws. Such expressions are idle verbiage, and the strongest mandate of the people's voice a mere *brutum fulmen*, if, through an excess of judicial courtesy towards the Legislature, such evasions as have here been noticed are to continue. But the rule just laid down by Judge Andrews, that the question whether a law be local or general "must be determined upon the special circumstances of each case," will check these evasions if firmly applied. On the one hand, in accordance with this rule, a law may be territorially local and yet really general,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

because it aims to prevent or abate a public nuisance and danger. Such are the subway acts requiring electric wires to be placed beneath the surface in the city of New York; and such are the acts for the protection of New York harbor, because that protection is essential to the prosperity of the whole State. On the other hand, however general a law may be in its form and terms, it is local if its whole practical effect is confined to the price of a commodity in one or two cities. A restriction of the price of gas in Brooklyn benefits only the householders of that city; that special fact cannot be changed by smothering it with all the general terms in the English language, and that special fact makes the restriction local, according to Judge Andrews's rule and the plainest dictates of justice and good sense. There is no magic in city classification, no jugglery with the words *any* or *all*, that can make a part equal to the whole; and no more flagrant evasion of the Constitution was ever attempted than the subterfuge of concealing a local restriction of the price of gas in that general law of 1890, which, according to its title, relates only to transportation corporations. It is a climax in that art of legislation which has no place among the honest arts.

WM. E. BULLOCK.

BROOKLYN, August 6, 1891.

THE JUDICIARY AND POLITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Here in Cincinnati an effort is being made on the part of the bar to select able men for judges. To this end some five hundred lawyers balloted for candidates and selected four names which they recommend to the people. It was hoped that the political parties in convention assembled would endorse this Lawyers' Judicial Ticket. The Republicans ignored it—in fact, failed to renominate a gentleman who has been on the bench during the past ten years and who has always been affiliated with that party. The cause assigned for his defeat is unique. Said the great Republican "Boss," "We had nothing against him; he only forgot to have some one in the convention to work for him." This answer alone is sufficient reason for making the judiciary appointive instead of elective. Of late we are having men nominated for judges because they will "catch" the soldier vote, the German vote, the farmer vote, etc.

The recent lawyers' movement has been criticised as an attempt to abridge the authority of the people and as an effort to create a "Lawyers' Trust." When such sentiments as these are abroad, it is well to turn to Chief-Justice Shaw's admirable farewell address to the Massachusetts bar, found in the appendix of 15 Gray's Reports, and read:

> "Above all, let us be careful how we disparage the wisdom of our fathers in providing for the appointment to judicial office, in fixing the tenure of office, and making judges as free, impartial, and independent as the lot of humanity will admit. Let no plausible or delusive hope of obtaining a larger liberty, let not the example of any other State, lead you in this matter to desert your own solid ground until cautious reason, or the well-tried experiment of others, shall have demonstrated the establishment of a judiciary wiser and more solid than our own."

MAX B. MAY.

CINCINNATI, August 6, 1891.

THE PATENT MONOPOLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The people of Keokuk have been favored with an electric street railway for about ten months, and, until about six weeks ago, had a feeling of supreme confidence in its capacity and efficiency as a public server. Since then, however, that confidence has been rudely shaken. A thunderstorm or two about the middle of June was the cause of the change. Lightning struck the trolley wire, ran into the power-house, despite the lightning arrester, and disabled all the armatures. Since then, let a thunder cloud appear, and the street-car service stops; and if you are down town, you either walk, hire a carriage, or wait until the elements expend themselves.

The management, on being interviewed, says there is a remedy for the inconvenience, but it cannot get it. The Thomson-Houston Electric Company have a lightning-arrester which will arrest lightning, but they refuse to sell it to a company not using their system, and its device is so well patented that no other device equally efficient can be made without infringing its rights. Our company uses the Sprague system, and therefore suffers from the boycott.

This state of affairs suggests a defect in the patent laws. While ordinarily a sense of justice supports the rule that no man should be compelled to sell his property, yet there would be no injustice in compelling the patentee of an article to sell such article to all who may desire it, if he sells it to one. He is granted a valuable monopoly by the Government, and in return therefor should be compelled to deal impartially with the general public.

W. J. ROBERTS.

KEOKUK, IOWA, August 3, 1891.

THE TARIFF ON IDEAS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One Bagster's Bible and one 'Bohn's Classical Quotations' mailed to me from London, in two sealed packages, and invoiced to me at $2.60. Packages cut open at New York Custom-house, invoice raised to $3.60; packages rewrapped and mailed to Chicago Post-office, C. O. D., ninety cents duties.

I have preserved the mutilated packages as an object-lesson. ***

CHICAGO, August 7, 1891.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO. will issue in the autumn Mr. John Fiske's work on 'The Discovery and Spanish Conquest of America.'

Macmillan & Co. will shortly begin publication of a series of copyright novels by English and American authors at the uniform price of a dollar. 'The Witch of Prague,' by F. Marion Crawford, 'Blanche Lady Falaise,' by Mr. Shorthouse, 'Life's Handicap,' by R. Kipling, and 'David,' by Mrs. Humphry Ward, are some of the titles already announced.

Ginn & Co. are about to bring out 'The Story of Our Continent: A Reading Book in the Geography of North America,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler of Harvard University.

Benjamin Drew, 48 Summer Street, Plymouth, Mass., has copied all the inscriptions and epitaphs which are legible on the headstones of Burial Hill, and proposes to print them in a volume if the necessary number of subscribers can be obtained at two dollars each. An alphabetical register and a numbered map will accompany the transcriptions.

The British Museum will soon publish the poems of Herodas, together with other texts deciphered from recently acquired papyri. They are to be edited by Dr. Rutherford, and it is hoped not to repeat the unfortunate experience with the 'Constitution of Athens.'

A new edition of Landor's 'Imaginary Conversations' is to be issued in six volumes by J. M. Dent & Co., London, with bibliographical and explanatory notes by Charles G. Crump. Volume i. is before us, and we learn from the Introduction that Forster's edition of 1876 is to be followed, with the addition of but one Conversation, that between Don Pedro and Inez di Castro, which has never been reprinted in its original prose form. The notes are largely devoted to pointing out Landor's successive alterations and omissions; a "collected bibliography," showing the date of each Conversation and the forms in which it has appeared, is promised for the last volume. The typography is very handsome.

Having so lately reviewed the first three parts of the fifth edition of Prof. Foster's 'Text-book of Physiology' (Macmillan), we need not enlarge upon the fourth and concluding part just to hand. It finishes book iii., on the central nervous system and its instruments, and adds book iv., on the tissues and mechanisms of reproduction. In this last book one can but be struck by the beautiful English style of the author, as well as by his other merits, which we have already pointed out. Prof. Foster gives notice of a sixth carefully revised edition, which he hopes to produce early in the autumn.

We need but mention the issue of the third of the nine volumes of Shakspere's Works as reëdited by William Aldis Wright (Macmillan). It contains "The Taming of the Shrew," "All's Well That Ends Well," "Twelfth Night," and "The Winter's Tale." No other edition surpasses this for readers who ask no more than a scrupulous text in clear and elegant type, with notes and footnotes given up wholly to various readings.

The latest volume to appear in the "Adventure Series" is 'The Story of the Filibusters,' by James Jeffrey Roche (Macmillan). It is not confined to the filibusters *par excellence*—the Walker bands of freebooters in Nicaragua—but goes back for a brief notice of the various piratical attempts made upon Spanish possessions in America, and comes down to the *Virginius* affair as the vanishing-point of filibusterism. The narrative takes on a melodramatic tone at times, but is well written on the whole, and appears to be based upon adequate investigation. Spanish phrases and proper names are curiously spelled here and there—perhaps in order to show the author's sympathy with David Crockett (whose abridged autobiography fills the last half of the volume), who said: "I despise this way of spelling contrary to nature."

Kinglake's 'Eothen' is the latest addition to the Messrs. Putnam's series of "Knickerbocker Nuggets," and none of its predecessors can be judged more suitable to this handy and entertaining collection.

Any good list of idioms is a decided help in acquiring conversational facility in a foreign tongue, and one is not surprised to find August Koop's recent 'German Idioms' issued in an enlarged second edition under the changed title 'Dictionary of English Idioms, with their German Equivalents' (Boston: Carl Schoenhof). The English portion alone is arranged alphabetically according to the leading word of each idiom. Some of the examples are not idiomatic, as, "Whereby does he get his living?" "To be in queer streets"; some are vulgarisms, as, "She is great on the piano"; and some have anything but a colloquial stamp, as "A goshawk beats not a bunting,"

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

"Gray hairs are death's blossoms," "Do not prepare thyself to die before thou seest the sea." These lapses, however, are not numerous.

A text-book to be recommended is 'Readings from French History,' edited by Prof. O. B. Super of Dickinson College (Boston: Allyn & Bacon). It consists of extracts from Thierry, Barante, Louis Blanc, Michelet, Lamartine, Mignet, Lanfrey, Ségur, Thiers, and Guizot. The arrangement is chronological. Obviously, apart from the historical information it imparts, this little book affords a capital comparison of French styles. The notes are for the most part explicatory, and not critical either of style or of fact. To this extent the teacher may need to intervene. In connection with the foregoing we may mention a second volume of 'Extraits Historiques de Jules Michelet' (Paris: Hachette; Boston: Carl Schoenhof). It covers the period from the beginning of the reign of Louis XIV. to the battle of Waterloo, and is a useful complement to Prof. Super's selections. Each chapter is preceded by a summary in English, and besides the notes there is a biographical and geographical index; and besides two maps there are a number of portrait illustrations of a rather poor order.

Sir Alfred Lyall's Rede Lecture on 'Natural Religion in India' is issued by Macmillan & Co. in a pamphlet of sixty-four pages. He regards India as the most favorable country on earth for an investigation of religion in the making; all grades of it, from the lowest animism up to the most philosophic Brahmanism, being present, with many transition stages clearly marked. This state of things he regards as due to India's remarkable exemption from the domination of the State in religious matters for many centuries, and also to the absence of a regularly organized hierarchy; the result being to preserve the ancient polytheism in a sort of arrested development, or, better, to leave the natural flux and growth of religious ideas to run their own course.

In the current number of his monthly catalogue of United States Government Publications (Washington), Mr. J. H. Hickcox expresses his thanks for the additional support given to his invaluable enterprise by librarians and others. On p. 125 will be found an interesting list, by States, of the sheets of the great atlas of the United States which the Geological Survey is making, completed during the year ending June 30, 1891. The sheets are designated by the most prominent feature. Colorado, Iowa, and Kansas have received most attention.

The French correspondent of the *Athenæum* reports an observant bookseller as declaring that the historians are gaining on the novelists in popular appreciation; and confirmation of the statement, so far at least as declining sales of novels are concerned, is given in the current *Publishers' Circular*. Reference is made by the *Circular* to some late statistics which show a remarkable falling off in the demand for novels — one "highly popular [French] writer" lately having had 45,000 copies of a single work thrown back on his publisher's hands.

In the second *livraison* for this year of the *Journal du Droit International Privé*, appears an article by Thorvald Solberg on "La nouvelle loi des États-Unis sur la propriété littéraire et artistique au point de vue national et international."

Edmond Plauchut has an article "d'une grande actualité" in the *Revue Bleue* of July 25, on the massacre of French residents in Tientsin, particularly of the members of a religious sisterhood, June 22, 1870. The hired murderers were led to their task by a Chinese General who was afterwards chosen as special envoy to France to make amends for the outrages. In the critical situation of the country at the time, the affair received little notice.

In the *Revista Ilustrada* (New York), for July, we find a valuable descriptive and statistical article on Venezuela, printed in parallel columns in Spanish, French, and English.

Among the new periodicals which have reached our table, two deserve a word of mention. The second number of the *Journal of Comparative Neurology* was published in June at Cincinnati by Robert Clarke & Co. This journal is under the editorial direction of Prof. C. L. Herrick. Its especial aim is, by suitable investigation of the anatomy and physiology of the lower animals, to throw light on the evolution of human consciousness with its concomitants. It is illustrated and prints a list of current neurological literature. A series of articles constituting a laboratory guide to the study of the nervous system is contemplated. The other periodical is the *Architectural Record*, published at No. 14 Vesey Street in this city. Its form (octavo) is unusual for this class of magazines. The typography falls short of being elegant or taking, but the illustrations are very good if arbitrarily inserted, and the table of contents is interesting. A novel at the end is a decided innovation.

—The contrast between the opportunities for higher education afforded women in Germany and in this country is well brought out by two publications that reach us together. One is the sixth issue in the "Bibliothek der Frauenfrage," being a vigorous address on "Like Education for Man and Woman," delivered by Frau J. Kettler before the Berlin branch of the "Deutsche Frauenverein Reform." An appendix gives an account of the aims and methods of this society, founded March 30, 1888, and of the petition laid in its name before the Reichstag on April 18 of the present year. The latter asks, in brief, for the right of women to study in at least one gymnasium and university in each State of the Empire, and particularly for the admission into German universities, without separate examination, of women who have been students of medicine in the Swiss universities. While their German sisters are thus battling for the right to enter institutions of higher learning, American women graduates are conducting a quarterly journal—the *Outlook*—in the interest of post-graduate and professional studies. The second number, that for July, is admirable in the quiet way in which it avoids anything like a "plea" or a "demand," and dwells, in its contributed articles, upon the work which women have done and are doing at Zürich, Boston, and Bryn Mawr. An editorial miscellany of notes and gleanings rounds off a periodical that evidently means to waste no strength in prolonging a battle already decided, but to do its best to make the most of the victory.

—Visitors to the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, will hereafter miss the great cylindrical structure which has for a quarter-century and more covered the largest telescope possessed by the Observatory. Notwithstanding its size, the Astronomer Royal has now procured through the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty a telescope more than twice as large as the old one. This step, long delayed at Greenwich, was absolutely required in the recent advances of astronomical science; and the optical peculiarities which the Astronomer Royal has embodied in the new instrument will render it one of the three most powerful telescopes at present in existence. The glass itself has a diameter of twenty-eight inches, and is figured by Sir Howard Grubb to a focal length of twenty-eight feet. This relatively short distance of the focal plane specially adapts the objective to photographic requirements. The peculiar architectural feature of the building which is to shelter the new telescope is that its dome, of thirty-six feet diameter, will surmount a tower having a diameter of only thirty-one feet. Technically, the form adopted is the surface generated by the revolution of an involute of a circle. The general exterior effect will be not unlike that of the cupola of a Turkish mosque, and the requirements of the astronomer are easily met mechanically, the necessary lightness and rigidity being secured by a framework of iron and steel. At the annual visitation of the Observatory in June, the Astronomer Royal, Mr. Christie, pressed upon the Board of Visitors the need, already severely felt, of providing accommodations for the increasing staff and the accumulating material. He recommends a comprehensive scheme, which the Board will doubtless accept, and which will provide for the expansion that has taken place in late years and may be expected to continue in the future. This comprises computing quarters for the magnetic, meteorologic, and astrophotographic branches of the establishment, fire proof houses for permanent storage of the books of calculation and photographic records, and a laboratory and dark galleries for spectroscopy and photography. In view of the advantage resulting from the use of electric lighting for the photographic, equatorial, and other instruments, it is very desirable that an electric-light installation should be provided for the observatory. This method of lighting is specially adapted to the requirements of an observatory, and might then be applied to the instruments generally, as has been done with marked success at the Royal Observatory, Cape Town, the Leipzig Observatory, and elsewhere. The new thirteen-inch photographic refractor has been brought into working shape, and is found to be very satisfactory and admirably adapted to its purpose. In particular, as its electrically controlled driving-clock proves to be very efficient, the great work of photographic star-charting to which the instrument is to be applied, will be thoroughly well done.

—For details of the spectroscopic, magnetic, and meteorologic work, reference must be had to the Astronomer Royal's report. The year 1890, however, presents some meteorologic peculiarities worth a note in passing. The aggregate number of hours during which the sun was above the horizon was 4,454. The ingenious Campbell-Stokes sunshine-recorder shows that there was bright sunshine for only 1,255 hours, or 35 hours below the average of the preceding 13 years. If constant sunshine is represented by unity, the mean proportion of sunshine for the year was thus only 0.282. The rainfall of 1890 was 21.9 inches, being 2.7 inches below the average of the preceding 49 years. The winter of 1890-91 was remarkable for a long period of exceptionally cold weather, which began November 25. From this day till the 22d of January the mean temperature on every day except January 13 was below the average. The temperature was continuously below 32 on November 27, 28, December 10 to 19, 22, 23, 25, 28 to 30, January 2, 6 to 8, 10, 11, 17 to 1

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The mean temperature of December, 1890, was 10° below the average of the preceding forty-nine years. In this same month only 2.4 hours of sunshine were recorded. It is to be observed that the Board of Visitors of the Royal Observatory includes many of the leading and most eminent men of science in Great Britain. The names of Prof. Sir William Thomson, Sir George Airy, Lord Rayleigh, the Earl of Rosse, Sir George Stokes, Profs. Adams and Cayley, Dr. Huggins, and Prof. Darwin are sufficient guarantee that the work of its Government observatory, maintained at the public charges, is in every way worthy of the nation. Similar control of the affairs of our own national observatory must be urged with strenuous insistence for the attainment of similar ends.

HARDY'S CALCULUS.—I.

Elements of the Differential and Integral Calculus. Method of Rates. By Arthur Sherburne Hardy, Ph.D., Professor of Mathematics in Dartmouth College. Boston: Ginn & Co. 8vo, pp. xi, 239.

THE stock example given in most treatises on the Differential Calculus in order to illustrate the nature of the quantities with which it deals and the processes it employs, is that of a body falling freely from a point above the surface of the earth. Suppose, in order to give precision to our conceptions, that a bullet is dropped from the top of the Washington Monument. Every one knows that as the bullet descends it moves "faster and faster." Briefly, in 1 second it falls 16 feet; in 2 seconds, 4 times as far, or 64 feet; in 3 seconds, 9 times 16, or 144 feet; in 4 seconds, 16 times 16, or 256 feet. The rule for finding the whole distance from "start to finish" for any given time is this: Multiply the square of the number of seconds by 16. Taking the seconds separately, the bullet falls 16 feet in the first, 48 feet in the next, 80 feet in the third, and 112 feet in the fourth second. All this will be found in any, the most elementary, text-book of natural philosophy. As the bullet goes "faster and faster" as it descends, the question seems very naturally to arise, How fast is it moving at any given instant, say the end of the third second? Put the question in the form of a problem, and it reads: How fast is the bullet moving at the end of the third second from the time it was dropped? The answer which the Differential Calculus gives is: At the rate of 96 feet per second. The rule for finding the answer for any given instant is: Multiply twice the number of seconds by 16. This also will be found in any common-school text-book of natural philosophy.

All this seems very simple, and even those who do not know how to go to work to solve the problem think they understand perfectly well what it means, and what the answer means. They will, perhaps, be surprised to learn that the real meaning of the problem and its answer, and the explanation and justification of the method by which that answer is obtained in the Differential Calculus—a method in principle as simple as the old-fashioned arithmetical rule for reducing fractions to a common denominator—are matters about which the profoundest mathematicians and philosophers, from the invention of the Calculus down to the present time, about two centuries, have differed and still differ. From the vast number who have written on the subject we select two or three examples. Augustus De Morgan—of whom Mr. Ball, in his 'History of Mathematics,' has truly said, "He was perhaps more deeply read in the philosophy and history of mathematics than any of his contemporaries"—in a work specially devoted to this subject, says: "It is matter of common observation that every one who commences this study, even with the best elementary works, finds himself in the dark until some accidental combination of his own ideas throws light upon the subject." To this the present writer may be permitted to add that it is matter of individual observation on his part that persons who had acquired facility in using the Calculus in the solution of problems, acknowledged their inability to give any explanation of its processes which was satisfactory to others, or even to themselves. De Morgan returns to the subject in various places in his works, and the general conclusion to be derived from all he has written is, that the manner in which the subject is treated by Leibnitz, though false in logic and absurd in language, is superior to every other in practice, and is, in fact, the method which almost everybody uses in practice even when, like himself, they adopt another method of explaining the philosophy of the subject.

The late Mr. Todhunter, one of the ablest English mathematicians of the present century, tells the student to submit to his teacher's guidance, keep to work, and he will come out all right. August Comte in the sixth *leçon* of his 'Philosophie Positive,' after a masterly summary of the different theories, comes to the conclusion that the Differential Calculus (*Calcul des Fonctions Indirectes*) is in a "veritably provisory state," and that no one can hope to understand it, "above all in its applications," without becoming acquainted with all the fundamentally different modes of explanation. This was in 1830. Thirteen years afterwards, in 1843, he published his 'Géometrie Analytique,' the only special mathematical treatise he ever wrote. Appended to it was a "Programme du Cours de Calcul Differentiel," etc., from which it appears that he was still of the same opinion. After another thirteen years, in 1856, he published the first volume of his 'Synthèse Subjective: Traité de Philosophie Mathématique,' the only volume he lived to complete. In it he pronounces an "irrevocable condemnation" of every attempt to demonstrate deductively the fundamental law of the Calculus, as alike "irrational and useless." In his opinion, the elementary principles of the Calculus were to be expounded, not proved, to be believed because they are always in accordance with the facts of experience.

We have no room for further citations. The present state of the Differential Calculus may be briefly described. By far the greater number of text-books adopt what is called the "Method of Limits." In our opinion its only advantage is that it enables the authors to cover up to a certain extent the real difficulties of the subject under a cloud of seeming analogies, a multitude of words, and a multiplicity of algebraical formulæ. Let us return to our problem and its answer: At what rate is a falling bullet moving at the end of the third second? Answer: At the rate of ninety-six feet per second. The *rate* of a moving body is the ratio of the number denoting the distance passed over in any portion of time to the number denoting the time occupied in passing over that distance. Thus, if a train of cars runs 10 miles in 20 minutes, or one-third of an hour, it is said to run the 10 miles at the rate of 30 miles an hour, because the ratio of 10 to one-third is 30. The rate is always found by dividing the number denoting the distance by the number denoting the time; more concisely, the ordinary way of stating it is: Divide the distance by the time. When the whole distance passed over divided by the whole time occupied in passing over it, and any distance taken anywhere within the whole divided by the time occupied in passing over it, give the same quotient, the motion is said to be uniform, or, in mathematical form, the distances are proportional to the times. Uniform motion is in almost, perhaps quite, all cases a mere mental conception, an intellectual assumption, never realized in fact. Assuming that the distance from New York to Philadelphia is 90 miles, and that a train of cars goes over it in 3 hours, we say it ran at the rate of 30 miles an hour. But the chances are infinitely great that it did not run any one mile in exactly two minutes. All numerical statements of a rate are statements of an average or mean rate. It is always so much space passed over in so much time. How the space was passed over, whether uniformly or otherwise, is another matter. In various departments of practical life the statement of a rate is reversed: instead of so many units of space in one unit of time, it is so many units of time occupied in passing over one unit of space. The one method is always easily convertible into the other. Tell a patron of the race-course that a certain horse trotted a certain distance at the rate of 25 miles an hour, and the statement does not at once convey any definite notion to his mind. Tell him the horse "trotted in 2:24," meaning 1 mile in 2 minutes 24 seconds, and all seems clear. Both statements mean the same thing; 2 minutes 24 seconds is the twenty-fifth part of one hour.

When we attempt to apply these very simple considerations to our problem and its answer, we are at once plunged in a maze of the most glaring absurdities. How long is the end of the third second? How much space did the bullet pass over *at* the end of the third second? How long was it after the third second ended before the fourth second began? The bullet, *at* the end of the third second, was in a certain definite position relatively to everything else in the universe, and after any interval, however small, it was in a different position. State any interval of time, though it be but the ten-thousand-millionth of a second, and, without going beyond the ground rules of arithmetic, we can show how far it went in that interval, what was its *mean* or *average* rate for that interval, and further that it did not move over that interval at any one rate. Stated in the language of logic and mathematics, "*at* an instant" and "*at* a point" are neither of them predicable of the subjects "motion" or "continuous change" of any kind. This is as true of uniform as of continuously varying motion. By an excusable and almost unavoidable license of language, we say that *at* a given instant a train of cars is running at a certain rate; but this is only to avoid the long circumlocution of saying: Taking any interval of time, great or small, within which the given instant lies, and dividing by it the distance passed over in that interval, you will get a certain rate. In popular language and in popular thought, what Kant would call the "pure intuition" (*reine Anschauung*) of motion is mixed up and confounded with a number of phenomena which always accompany it, but do not constitute it. But there is even in the minds of the uneducated a consciousness of the truth. Whoever first conceived the idea of taking instantaneous photographs, we presume, was a person who had never studied the Differential Calculus, or bothered himself about the metaphysics

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of "pure intuitions *à priori*." But he certainly had a conception of the fact that just in proportion to the instantaneousness of the action of his camera, his photograph would resemble one of the same object in the same position at rest. It is needless to multiply illustrations. It may be asked, Is there not some difference, even at a given instant, between a body in motion and one at rest? There certainly is, but it is not to be ascertained by dividing a point in space by an instant in time, nor is it necessary to our purpose to investigate what that difference is. One thing is certain: there is no such condition or conception, no such thing or thought, as instantaneous motion. When we ask, At what rate is the bullet moving at the end of the third second? we are inquiring about some interval of time and some distance in space at the beginning or end of which or within which that instant occurs, or else the problem is meaningless and the answer absurd.

FOUR NOVELS.

Tales of Two Countries. By Alexander Kielland. Translated by William Archer. Harper & Bros.

Dally. By Maria Louise Pool. Harper & Bros.

Iduna, and Other Stories. By George A. Hibbard. Harper & Bros.

Main-Travelled Roads. By Hamlin Garland. *Arena* Publishing Company.

THE half-score of studies in imaginative prose which have just found such an admirable translator are, as may be learned from the short biography by Prof. Boyesen which serves as an introduction to them, the work of the Norwegian author's 'prentice hand. But it was none the less a hand which had already gained the skill to draw with firm and broad strokes. Tentative as they are, both in subject and treatment, no signs of hesitation appear in the execution of these small but boldly outlined sketches. What first strikes the reader after turning them over, one by one, is the range and variety of the themes on which they touch. The most unlike among them differ almost as widely in form and thought as a poem may from a prose tale. Before the collection was finished, the author had already made himself as familiar with the outward aspect, and with at least some phases of the life, of the Parisian boulevard as he was with the wild natural scenery of the peat-moor and heath and the paralyzing monotony of existence in a "stagnant little town" in his own country. "Romance and Reality," a brief history of matrimonial shipwreck, shows the dreary details of this provincial stagnation. Though told with humor and feeling, it is a trifle didactic in tone, and is, perhaps for this reason, less successful in general effect than its companion pieces. In "Pharaoh," a little spiritual drama, as strong as it is brief, the voice of the Parisian mob is heard, though only in a "long, withdrawing roar." A high order of talent was needed to produce within the compass of so few pages, and by means so simple as the chance visit of a commonplace young couple from Lyons to the fête of Saint-Germain, so large a perspective of life as is disclosed in the little episode called "At the Fair." Conspicuous amid the scenes which the painted curtains hide from the eyes of the holiday-makers is the hauntingly pathetic figure of the tiny mountebank, in green and red tights, who sobs, under his sorry fool's-cap, the refrain of his grief, "Maman m'a pris mon sou!" A happier picture of boyhood is drawn in "The Parsonage," where the opening of spring on the Norway coast is charmingly described, and where the rudely interrupted happiness is not restored, only because the good pastor, so wise in the ways of Providence, "could not understand his children." However slight in motive they may seem individually, these novelettes, as they were called in the original, have the qualities that put them in the ranks of the literature that has more than a day to live.

In spite of the somewhat confusing effect of the contrasted dialects in which it is largely written, '*Dally*' contains some very entertaining pages. The half-savage little Carolina waif, brought by the whim of a fine lady, on a tour in the South, into the orderly New England home of the widow Abijah Jacobs, speedily wins her way into the affections of the simple-hearted woman, whose ideas of domestic economy she so sadly sets at defiance. An arch enemy, however, she does not fail to find. With some of her methods of avenging herself on the tormentor it will be difficult for other "professors" than the self-reproaching widow Jacobs not to sympathize, but the author's hardly concealed satisfaction in the "Nemesis" (paralytic in character) which overtakes "her that was a Jones," would surely put to blush the Ransom code of morals. Dally, in constant need of soap and water and of discipline, or in a softened mood "reckoning 'tis better to pray nor 'tis to cuss," is always attractive and possible; but Dally grown up, "almost iridescent" in face, and in a "clinging" gown of the New York lady's ordering, with even her adopted idioms smoothed from her speech, savors too much of the conventional type of heroine. Altogether, the rather melodramatic key to which the story is wound up towards the end does not form as happy a termination as was promised by the earlier quiet and recognizable descriptions of the good people of Ransom.

"Iduna," the first of the stories in the volume to which it gives its name, is chiefly noticeable as the failure of an ambitious attempt at originality. The young girl who has been kept in ignorance of death until, in a thunderstorm, "when there came a crash as if the world itself were shattered," she finds herself alone with it, can only be rivalled in unreality by the persons who surround her. The other stories reach merely a crude sensationalism. As specimens of style they offer some amusement, if not instruction. "We cackled a fusillade of cachinnations in salute to new ones [jokes], as if those of which we had been fond for years were as nothing in comparison." "The pellet of the pistol ball shall physic my present pain—characteristic cure—life true to itself to the last." In this last delicate fancy allowance must be made for the heated brain of the intending suicide to whom it is attributed. The following is a bit of the author's narrative: "The countenance . . . of a connoisseur, aglow as the banquet and flavor of some rare, age-thinned ichor of some royal vine melt along two senses for the instant seemingly made exquisitely one—were but blanks to the child's face as she finished the quick feat of swallowing the first mouthful."

If the title of '*Main-Travelled Roads*' contains a suggestion of sentimental journeying, the suggestion is a delusion. Mr. Garland writes with the pen of uncompromising realism. The atmosphere to which he confines himself is that of farm life in the Mississippi Valley. Throughout his six short stories the point of view, as well as the literary manner, is consistently American. But this does not prevent the conclusion of the first one of the group from showing an indifference to the question of morality worthy of an advanced disciple of Flaubert or Daudet. It must be added, however, that the sundering of family ties resolved upon in "Ed" Kinney's neglected kitchen offers no dangerous illusions to the imagination. The note of "modernity" is nowhere more fully struck than when the Western tempter proposes that in the future they shall go "maybe to Europe" and to "the theatre and concerts." Life as seen through these pages does not present a buoyant face. The mortgage, the grasshopper, "the injustice of his fellow-men" combine to make the battle a losing one to the settler who "rises into a magnificent type" in the "dusk of that far-off valley." There is no doubt that power of observation and of rendering the results with exactness is disclosed in these stories; but they lose by a successive reading. Descriptions of the same uninviting interiors, the same birds and insects, the same hot corn-rows and wheat fields, finally produce an impression of monotony and of mannerism. "Under the Lion's Paw" and "Mrs. Ripley's Trip" make strong and successful appeals to the emotions, while "Among the Corn-Rows" looks into a future of brighter prospects than are realized by Mr. Garland's travellers on the main road.

The Battle of Seven Pines. By Gustavus W. Smith, formerly Major-General Confederate States Army. New York: C. G. Crawford. 8vo, pp. 202.

THE fighting at Seven Pines and Fair Oaks, near Richmond, on May 31 and June 1, 1862, gave rise to controversy on both National and Confederate sides. On the National side, Generals Keyes and Casey contended that the despatches and reports of McClellan did great injustice to Keyes's corps, and especially to Casey's division, by assuming that their being dislodged by the enemy was due to bad handling and lack of bravery, instead of its being the result of McClellan's own fault in putting them over the Chickahominy and leaving them unsupported against a crushing concentration of the Confederates upon them. On the Confederate side, Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, who was in command, was disabled by a severe wound late in the afternoon of May 31, and Gen. Smith, as second in rank, succeeded him. In the fighting of June 1 the National troops repulsed the attacks of the Confederates on the new lines to which Keyes's Corps had retreated, and in which it was supported by Sumner and Heintzelman. On June 2 President Davis put Gen. Lee in command of the Confederate Army, relieving Gen. Smith. The latter was taken ill just afterwards, and continued much broken in health, so that he did little active field service again. To this illness he attributes his failure to secure reports from subordinates, and thus to prevent erroneous accounts of the engagement from getting a rooted place in current history. He now makes a review of the events, collating reports on both sides, and adding much original material from his own papers and correspondence.

The drift of opinion has been in favor of the theory that Johnston's plan of attack had failed of full effect by reason of tardiness on the part of General Smith's troops (Whiting's and A. P. Hill's divisions) and those of General Huger in coöperating with Longstreet's troops on May 31, and that Smith failed in giving purpose and force to the Confederate movements on June 1. General Smith contends that this inverts the truth: that his troops and those of Huger were prompt in reaching the positions assigned them on the 31st, and that

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the only error was that of Longstreet, who wholly missed the road upon which he was to march his own division, and took that upon which D. H. Hill had advanced, instead of moving parallel to Hill. He insists that Longstreet thus blocked the way against Huger's continued movement and became responsible for the disjointed attack which occurred, instead of the concentrated and overwhelming one which had been intended. As to the 1st of June, he argues that Longstreet failed to send reinforcements to the left wing of the Confederates as ordered, and represented himself as fighting at desperate odds so as to need help himself instead of sending it to others; that, in fact, Longstreet was not seriously engaged or seriously threatened, and that the purpose of the commandant (Smith himself) was thus defeated.

It is only fair to say that the array of evidence which Gen. Smith presents is strong enough to command attention, and must modify the received reports of this episode in the civil war unless it can be rebutted by superior weight of proof. His documents (of some of the more important of which he gives facsimiles) are from the chief actors themselves, and seem to be of unquestionable authenticity. His tone is dignified and self-respecting, and he strikes manfully at the real points in dispute without indulging in pettiness or wrangling. His book, therefore, must be regarded as a worthy treatment of an historic question of real doubt. Gen. Longstreet is still living, though it is reported that his work upon his military memoirs has been suspended by reason of his delicate health; and it is to be hoped that he may not fail to give the world a full explanation of the facts so strongly marshalled by Gen. Smith.

Notes on American Schools and Training Colleges. By J. G. Fitch, M.A., LL.D. Macmillan & Co. Pp. 133.

THESE notes, although reprinted from an English educational blue-book, have a special value for Americans, inasmuch as they show how our public-school system appears to one of the most eminent of English educators; and, although in the main encouraging, they intensify our consciousness of the defects of this system. The author, one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Training Colleges, during a recent visit to this country saw some of our best schools; and in this report to Parliament he embodies the results of his investigation.

Naturally, one of the first things mentioned by Mr. Fitch is the diversity of organization and of administration in American schools, due to the autonomy of the local authorities in educational matters; and he rightly says that the one prerogative of an independent and autonomous government with which the States are not likely to part is the absolute control of public education. Perhaps the most serious evil in our public-school system mentioned by Mr. Fitch is the one growing out of this autonomy of the local authorities, namely, the influence of local politics in school administration. This influence he notes especially in relation to the school superintendent. Of this peculiarly American officer he says:

"Within his own domain, whether a State, a county, or a city, he combines in himself the characters of a minister of public instruction, an inspector of schools, a licenser of teachers, and a professor of pedagogy. . . . The main drawback to the usefulness of the school superintendent is his precarious tenure of office. He is appointed by a local school committee, which is itself directly or indirectly the product of popular election, and which is liable to frequent changes. He is himself subject to biennial or even to annual reëlection, and cannot count on that reëlection unless he is *persona grata* to the local authority of the day. . . . Every school superintendent has, therefore, a personal interest in local elections, which sometimes necessarily identifies him with party controversies, and which must in any case tend to withdraw his attention from his proper duties."

The remedy suggested by Mr. Fitch is the application of the principles of civil-service reform in the sphere of education. He adds:

"A body of public officers like the members of the permanent Civil Service in England, bound by the traditional etiquette of their profession to hold themselves aloof from all party politics, and to place their best services at the disposal of chiefs of different administrations, yet, at the same time, secure in their position *quamdiu se bene gesserint*, does not exist in America. Until it exists, the nation will not induce the ablest men to take up departmental duty as a life's profession, nor will it obtain, even from those who now undertake it, the fullest and highest service which they are capable of rendering."

Mr. Fitch has spared us the disgrace of an extended report on the way teachers are appointed in many of our cities, and on their liability to displacement because of partisan intrigue, nepotism, and prejudices of sex and nationality. He might have added that, until the principles of civil-service reform are extended to the appointment and tenure of office of teachers, the nation will not secure the most efficient service in the school-room.

Noting the evil influence of local politics, the disorganized condition of our educational "system," and the inadequate provision for education in some States—Alabama, for example, according to official report, providing free public schools only seventy and one-half days in the year—Mr. Fitch seems to regret that there is no central authority that has any influence. The one important point that he has failed to notice, however, is that, in a republic like ours, the autonomy of the local authorities is the great safeguard of education. It is this which gives every good citizen a feeling of personal interest and responsibility in the schools of his own municipality or township. Any form of national or State aid to education—land-grants, Blair Bill, or the like—or any scheme of centralization, is likely to be opposed by thoughtful educators, unless some guarantee can be given that a wholesome measure of local responsibility will be retained. A distinguishing merit (and not the only one) of the old "district-school" system was that it intensified this feeling of local responsibility. Probably such a general interest in the public schools, and sense of individual responsibility for their welfare, as prevailed in New England towns under this system, has never existed elsewhere in this country or in England. Elaborate educational machinery will not atone for lack of popular interest in the schools. As Spencer has attempted to show, we must not educate our children at the cost of uneducating the community. Mr. Fitch himself says that "the one great safeguard for the continued and rapid improvement of education in America is the universal interest shown in it by the community"; but this interest is in great degree due to the autonomy of the local authorities in educational matters.

Among the other evils noticed by Mr. Fitch are the following: small playgrounds and too limited air-space for pupils in some schools, subterraneous influences in the introduction of school-books, too much memorizing, idolatry of text-books, method-cramming and slavery to pedagogical formulæ, the crushing out of individuality and originality by the custom of judging schools by methods and machinery adopted rather than by results achieved. Among the things that he commends are the continuous blackboards on the walls of our school-rooms, the practice of oral composition, the adoption of the Grube method and the custom of giving original problems in arithmetic, the excellence of the discipline, the lessons in patriotism, platform exercises, teachers' institutes and associations, the Chautauqua movement, Teachers' Reading Circles, the popular interest in education, and the attention given by teachers to the philosophy of education and to psychology. Many points of similarity and of contrast between English and American schools and teachers are also presented, an account of our normal schools and means of educating teachers is given, and some attention is devoted to Canadian schools.

The book as a whole is well written and interesting. The author, already favorably known to Americans by his 'Lectures on Teaching,' will increase their gratitude and esteem by the appreciative spirit in which he has made this brief but valuable survey of American education.

Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America. 1773–1783. Vol. VIII. Nos. 754 to 849. London: B. F. Stevens.

THE eighth volume of these facsimiles is more interesting than those which immediately preceded it. We are not obliged, in reading it, to climb again the treadmill of the petty intrigues and small conspiracies of 1777. The end of that year brought to Paris the news of Burgoyne's surrender, and thus opened a new period in the dealings of the French Court with the American Commissioners. This may, indeed, be considered the beginning of the diplomatic history of the United States. Franklin, Deane, and Lee ceased to be the agents of a band of insurgents to whom unacknowledged aid was to be given through secret channels, and became the representatives of an independent nation, dealing openly, if not quite on equal terms, with French Ministers of State. In the first half of January, 1778, we find the Commissioners answering two questions. The papers are preserved in the French Foreign Office. In each case question and answer are in the same handwriting, yet there can be little doubt that the questions were really asked on the part of the French Government and answered by the American envoys. One document is in the handwriting of Dr. Franklin. It runs as follows:

"Question. What is necessary to be done to give such Satisfaction to the American Commissioners, as to engage them not to listen to any Propositions from England for a new Connection with that Country?

"Answer. The Commissioners have long since proposed a Treaty of Amity and Commerce, which is not yet concluded: the immediate Conclusion of that Treaty will remove the Uncertainty they are under with regard to it, and give them such a Reliance on the Friendship of France, as to reject firmly all Propositions made to them of Peace from England, which have not for their Basis the entire Freedom and Independence of America, both in Matters of Government and Commerce." (774.)

The date, 8th January, 1778, has been added by another hand. The second paper, written out by Silas Deane, appears to have been presented three days later:

"Question. What is necessary to be done immediately so to satisfy the Congress and the People of America with the Utility and Certainty of the Friendship of France and Spain,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

in securing their Independence that they also will reject all Propositions from England for Peace inconsistent with that Independence.

"Answer. The Commissioners think, that an immediate engagement on the Part of these Kingdoms to guarantee the present Possessions of the Congress in America, with such others as they may acquire on the Continent during the War; and either to enter into a War against England, or to furnish the Congress with Money (if they do not) to carry on the War, untill a safe Peace can be obtained, and untill, all that the English now possess on the Continent shall be conquered, which will be necessary both for the weakening of their Power, and for securing the Fisheries to the United States and their allies. And that the Treaty containing Engagements to this Effect be directly communicated to the Congress.

"If France and Spain, or either of them as Auxiliary, would furnish us with a Fleet of Six or Eight Sail of the Line or more, this would give the Congress and the People of America the most certain Prospect, of a favorable, and speedy End of the War, to their full Satisfaction, and prevent their listening to any Accommodation or Terms, short of absolute Independency." (776.)

It was less than a month from the time that these questions were answered that two treaties, one of amity and commerce, the other of alliance, were signed between the Most Christian King and the United States of America.

The eighth volume of the facsimiles is not entirely given up to diplomacy. It contains several letters from French officers in America, and especially from the adventurer known as Baron de Kalb. The claim to gratitude on the part of Americans, set up by some lovers of Germany in behalf of that country on account of the services of Kalb and Steuben, is one of the comic things in our history. John Kalb, whose title of Baron would appear to have been assumed without authority, was a thorough-going soldier of fortune. Although born in Germany, he never in his life held a German commission. He was employed in the French service, and in that of Poland in the French interest, and rose to the rank of lieutenant-colonel. He came to America with the connivance of the French Ministry, but principally as an agent of the Comte de Broglie. This nobleman had held a position of power and influence in the reign of Louis XV. Through him the secret correspondence which that monarch kept up in foreign courts, behind the backs of his acknowledged advisers, had been carried on. The accession of Louis XVI. had put an end to these intrigues and left the Comte de Broglie without occupation. His active mind conceived a bold project for a new rise to importance. He would go to America, with sufficient guarantees as to salary and honors, supersede Washington, become generalissimo, protector, or what not, and return to Europe crowned with laurels and clothed in glory. That this scheme, long suspected, was actually entertained, there is now no doubt. Friedrich Kapp explained the whole matter in his Life of Kalb. The latter was to prepare Broglie's path in America, and was sent out with Lafayette for that purpose. The Marquis, who was only nineteen years old, was probably ignorant of the scheme. Whether Silas Deane knew of it when he gave Kalb his commission as Major-General in the army of the United States, is uncertain. Nor will it ever be known what Kalb himself thought of the plan, in his own heart, at the time when he left France with instructions to see about carrying it out. He had already been in America, in 1768, to collect information concerning the state of the country and the condition of public feeling, for the use of the French Ministers. He may be supposed to have known from the beginning, better than Broglie, how futile were the latter's hopes. In any case, he had not been long in America, in 1777, before he sent word to his employer that the great project which he had taken up with so much pleasure, could not possibly succeed. The proposed plan was not feasible. It would be considered a crying injustice to Washington and an act of violence towards the country (755).

The volume before us contains several of Kalb's letters, full of dissatisfaction and of the desire to get back to France. But he looked on Broglie as his patron, and awaited the latter's permission for his return, doing good military service meanwhile to the United States, whose pay he was taking, but constantly writing long reports in cipher for the use of the French Ministers and nobles, in whom his chief hopes of future advancement were centred. These reports were probably the chief cause of his being retained in America by his patrons in Europe. He complains frequently of not receiving letters. Once only, as we know from Kapp, did Broglie vouchsafe him a reply. By it Kalb was instructed to send his despatches in cipher thenceforth direct to the French Minister of War. Thus is the double part which he played the more clearly exposed.

Crime and Its Causes. By William Douglas Morrison, of H. M. Prison, Wandsworth. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1891.

It is not often the case that public opinion is so confuted as it is by this little book. There is probably no proposition that would command more general assent than the statement that crime is caused by poverty. A recent writer upon socialism, and one of rather noticeably moderate views, has declared that a community where no one was hungry would be the veritable celestial city, and a similar belief colors deeply the philanthropy of the day. Upon this assumption Mr. Morrison forcibly remarks:

"It has been reserved for this generation to propagate the absurdity that the want of money is the root of all evil; all the wisest teachers of mankind have hitherto been disposed to think differently, and criminal statistics are far from demonstrating that they are wrong. . . . A mere increase of material prosperity generates as many evils as it destroys; it may diminish offences against property, but it augments offences against the person, and multiplies drunkenness to an alarming extent. While it is an undoubted fact that material wretchedness has a debasing effect both morally and physically, it is also equally true that the same results are sometimes found to flow from an increase of economic well-being."

These paradoxical statements would perhaps be dismissed by many persons as mere expressions of opinion, but Mr. Morrison remorselessly proceeds to adduce overwhelming proofs of his position. In the first place, he explodes the common theory that crime is most rife during the winter months, when work is hard to obtain. From the last sextennial diagram of the Prison Commissioners, it appears that the number of prisoners in the local prisons of England and Wales is lowest in February, and increases until October, when it begins to decline and continues to lessen until February is again reached. This phenomenon has been explained as due to the habits of the tramps, who leave the workhouses in spring and roam about in a predatory manner during the warm weather. Unfortunately for this theory, Mr. Morrison is provided with some figures as to the arrests for vagrancy, which indicate that far more persons are imprisoned on this charge in winter than in summer. What is even more contrary to our prepossessions as to the effects of the English climate, the number of suicides in London during the months of May and June is to the number in November and December as 10 to 7.

Mr. Morrison next proceeds to fortify his position by figures concerning crimes committed by destitute persons. He defines a destitute person as one who is homeless and out of work, and points out that the offences most likely to be committed by such persons are begging and theft. Cases of this kind are about 15 per cent. of those tried in England and Wales, 8 per cent. being offences against property, and the remainder offences against the vagrancy acts. But it appears that one-half of the offenders against property, so far from being destitute, were actually at work and earning wages at the time of their arrest. Of the remaining 4 per cent., one-half belong to the class of habitual criminals. Only 2 per cent., therefore, are driven to crime by destitution.

Of the offenders against the vagrancy acts less than half were charged with begging, and of these many were professional beggars. By a careful process of exclusion, Mr. Morrison reaches the result that of these also not more than 2 per cent. are made criminals by destitution. He quotes as additional evidence in support of his conclusion a fact referred to by M. Monod of the Ministry of the Interior in France. It seems that a benevolent citizen determined to offer work at four francs a day to every sturdy beggar who presented himself. In the course of eight months he was favored with calls from 727 persons of this class, all complaining of lack of work. Every one was asked to come the following day to receive a letter that would insure him employment at the wages above specified. More than half (415) never came for the letter; 138 returned for the letter, but never presented it; only 18 worked more than three days.

Upon the whole, Mr. Morrison concludes that not 5 per cent. of the persons tried for crime in England are driven to offend by absolute want, and he observes that the practice of attributing crime to this cause tends to encourage it. "It creates a false sentiment of compassion for the utterly worthless; it prevents them from being dealt with according to their deserts, and, worst of all, it is apt to make the working population imagine that there is a community of interests between them and the criminal classes which does not in reality exist." Mr. Morrison adds that his personal experience has satisfied him that real workingmen seldom beg when out of work, and that those who do are to a large extent elderly and enfeebled men deprived of employment by trade union rules, which require the payment of equal wages to all members. When men become unable to do a full day's work at their trade, these rules prevent them from working at their trade at all. It is significant that in spite of the economic disadvantages under which women labor, only one woman becomes a beggar to every four men, or, excluding fallen women, to every eight men. If we proceed to examine the figures showing the number of offences which from their character must be committed by comparatively well-to-do persons, we shall find no reason to modify these conclusions. In spite of the fact that this class has many facilities for escaping the penalty of imprisonment, they probably furnish quite their full quota to the jails. It is said that in Prussia the liberal professions contribute twice their proper share to the criminal population, and a like state of affairs seems to exist in other countries. Speaking generally, the number of offences against

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

property is greater among rich than among poor nations. Twice as many persons are tried for theft in England as in Ireland; thrice as many in England as in Spain. In England one person in forty-two is proceeded against criminally; in India one in one hundred and ninety-five.

Another misconception corrected by Mr. Morrison relates to the volume of crime in England, which is popularly supposed to be decreasing. This belief is based upon the fact that there was a daily average of over 20,000 persons in prison in 1878, and of about 15,000 in 1888. This average, however, depends upon the length of sentence prisoners receive, as well as upon the number of prisoners committed. As a matter of fact, this number is greater than before, from which it follows that there are more short sentences now pronounced, although there is no material diminution in the number of grave offences. This increase of crime is due partly to changes in legislation. In 1888–'89 more than 80,000 persons were tried for violating the Elementary Education Act, and Mr. Morrison comments in a passage of extreme importance upon the tendency of modern legislatures to pass penal laws affecting the daily lives of large classes in the community. The effect of these laws is to fill the jails, and put the prison taint upon a greater number of the population. A man may be sent to prison for violating a municipal by-law, and emerge with criminal associations that will make him a greater menace to society than a hundred offenders against municipal regulations. Wise laws will keep the people out of jail rather than drive them into it.

We cannot consider the evidence that leads Mr. Morrison to think that crime is increasing in other countries, and we are not unwilling to pass over the subject, because he has been misled concerning the United States. We believe that no satisfactory statistics are in existence concerning the amount of crime in this country. Mr. Morrison is excusable for stating, upon the authority of Mr. D. A. Wells and Mr. H. Wines, that it is increasing, but we do not understand that Mr. Wines establishes this proposition by unimpeachable figures, and Mr. Wells is himself misled by a comparison of the census returns of 1850 and 1880. These returns were not made upon the same principle, and are useless for purposes of comparison. As to the influence of climate upon crime, Mr. Morrison's reasoning is extremely ingenious, although not to our mind altogether satisfactory, but our space does not allow us to state his conclusions. For the same reason we must pass over the valuable observations upon the relations of sex and age to crime, the punishment of crime, and the physical and mental peculiarities of criminals. The illustrations that we have given of Mr. Morrison's method will indicate the importance of his conclusions. We shall only add that we have seldom met with a sociological investigation more distinguished for its thoroughly scientific spirit, or for the elegance of its statistical inductions.

Francis Wayland. By James O. Murray, Dean and Professor of English Literature in Princeton College. [American Religious Leaders.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

PROF. MURRAY'S book is a great improvement on the sketches of Dr. Muhlenberg and Wilbur Fisk in the same series, while still far below the level of Dr. Allen's 'Jonathan Edwards.' The sketch of Wayland is too little of a study, too much of a eulogy, but at least the author has a genuine admiration for his character and work, and does not damn him with faint praise after the manner of Prof. Prentice in his sketch of Fisk, nor bang-whang the glory of his sect into our ears; having, perhaps, taken warning from his predecessor's terrible example. The division of his matter has led to some redundancy, the last chapters, on Dr. Wayland as an educator, author, preacher, philanthropist, and citizen, going over a good deal of ground that had been traversed in the first part. It is not clear why the substance of these chapters should not all have been interwoven with the chapters that repeat—for it is mainly repetition and abridgment of a more elaborate biography—the story of his busy life.

The personal influences that shaped Wayland's earlier manhood were those of Moses Stuart of Andover and Dr. Nott of Union College, two very different men, the first a genuine scholar, the second an ecclesiastico-political educator. Dr. Wayland's first and only regular pastorate was in Boston, and, while his biographer appeals from his own mournful depreciation of it, it is evident that it was a failure in all concrete particulars. Dr. Wayland's strength was in occasional sermons, and these did more for his reputation than for his parish, which had no prosperity with him. The most famous occasional sermon of his life was that preached on Sunday evening, October 26, 1823, when he was twenty-seven years old, "The Moral Dignity of the Missionary Enterprise." It had a great currency in many languages, and did more, perhaps, than any sermon of the century to incite the churches to missionary activities; yet, as preached, it seems to have fallen flat enough on the little company that heard it, chilled by the nor'easter which obliged the preacher to wear his great coat while uttering his majestic periods.

His presidency of Brown University from 1827 to 1855 was the best work of his life. The institution was in a very feeble state when he took charge of it, and in almost comical disorder. It was a characteristic feature that "a barrel of ale was always kept on tap in the cellar, to which all undergraduates had free access." But, notwithstanding his reforms of administration, the improvement of the library and the introduction of scientific studies, the number of students steadily decreased. In 1840 he went to Europe, where he had slight appreciation of anything beautiful, and was not a little nettled to find in England "all the talk about abolition," with some candid expressions about the attitude of the American churches and about a recent volume of his own, in which his interpretation of the Constitution had got the better of his moral sense. Notwithstanding these discouragements, he studied carefully the English universities, and carried back with him many ideas that, coalescing with his original tendencies, produced, a few years later, a policy of reform which his struggling and decadent college accepted to prevent his resignation. It was a day of small things: a total endowment of $34,000 had not been increased a cent for forty years. Prof. Murray gives a good analysis of Dr. Wayland's project of reform, which is too elaborate to reproduce, but it places Dr. Wayland in the front rank of college reformers, among the first in his demand for wider scientific studies and the elective system. Some of his ideas have not stood the test of time, but the most central have done so, and their general adoption by the college was the beginning of its better days, though an endowment of $125,000 which he asked for, and got, did perhaps as much. His plea for a longer course of study must be taken in connection with the preparation then demanded, and other features of his scheme, to be understood. It was not essentially contradictory of President Eliot's recommendation of a three-years course.

When Dr. Wayland resigned his office in 1855, he had ten years more to live, for several of which he supplied the pulpit of the church in Providence which Roger Williams founded, and did much literary work. His three text-books have now reached a sale of 200,000 copies. His 'Political Economy' had the merit of advocating free trade in an intensely protectionist community. His 'Intellectual Philosophy' never had the currency of his 'Moral Science.' The latter, published in 1835, pronounced for immediate emancipation, but with limitations that drew the abolitionists' fire. In 1838 his 'Limitations of Human Responsibility' argued the inability of the general Government to abolish slavery in the District of Columbia, a position from which he receded before long. His biographer has given, though not without regret and in an apologetic fashion, evidence of Wayland's distrust of the abolitionists' methods, and his criticism of their perfervid speech. There is something touching in the innocence of Prof. Murray's suggestion that if he had lived to see the work of emancipation fully accomplished by the war, "no man would have sooner recognized the merits of these abolitionists." In 1844 he voted for Henry Clay, but in 1848 he was a Free-Soiler, and in the fifties a stern opponent of the Slave Power's arrogant aggressions. In religious liberality, combined with an unbending orthodoxy with the edges of its Calvinism somewhat smoothed away, he was distinctly in advance of the majority of Christians in his generation. What was dearest to him in the Baptist polity of his life-long devotion was its assertion of the rights of free thought and the independence of the local congregation.

State and Federal Government in Switzerland. By John Martin Vincent, Ph.D., Librarian and Instructor in the Department of History and Politics, Johns Hopkins University. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press. 1891.

THE historian of a hundred years hence may well remark that, at the close of the nineteenth century, there was a general dissatisfaction throughout the United States with the working of our political institutions, and, as a consequence, there sprang up on all sides societies for the study of political science with the object of finding out the cause of the prevailing troubles; that chairs of political science were established in most of the leading universities for the same purpose, the occupants vying with each other in publishing studies of the different governments of the world. Among the foremost in this work is the Johns Hopkins University, and in its publications the work of Mr. Vincent needs to take no second place. There is no Government which deserves more attention in the United States than that of Switzerland, and this little book furnishes a statement of the facts so clear and exhaustive as to call for unqualified admiration and praise. In fact, it bristles all over with points for discussion having an electric force of attraction. We must confine ourselves to two, and those very briefly, the relation of the executive to the legislative, and the much-talked-of *referendum*.

The Federal Executive consists of seven

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

members, chosen by the two houses in joint session for three years, from all Swiss citizens eligible to either branch of the Legislature, though the candidates not only need not but must not be members of the Legislature. One of the seven members is chosen each year, also by the houses in joint session, to be the President for that year. By the Constitution, the Federal Council introduces bills or resolutions into the Federal Assembly, and gives its opinion upon the proposals submitted to it by the councils or the cantons. It administers the finances of the Confederation, introduces the budget, and submits accounts of receipts and expenses. The members of the Federal Council have the right to speak, but not to vote, in either house of the Federal Assembly, and also the right to make motions on the subject under consideration. Yet the members of the Council do not resign when the Assembly votes against them, but keep quietly on for the term of three years, which is all the more remarkable as they owe their election in the first place to the Assembly, and not to the people, as our Executive does.

As to the *referendum*, according to which, upon the demand of a certain number of citizens, any law must be submitted to a vote of the people, though Mr. Vincent advocates its introduction into this country, we do not believe it could be made to work successfully even in the States. It is quite alien to the habits of our people, and with the number of large cities, and the increasing proportion of the foreign element, the experiment, cumbrous as it is, would be too hazardous. But, on the other hand, we already have the *referendum*, only it applies to persons instead of particular laws. If the Swiss Executive had after three years to go back to the people for approval, having in the meantime been constantly held to public cross-examination and accountability, it is pretty safe to assume that no laws would be passed which the people would seriously disapprove.

There is a curious resemblance between the *Landesgemeinde*, as here described, and our New England town meeting; every item of business to be discussed has to be printed in a "memorial," precisely as in our town "warrant." As a reminder that Switzerland cannot be quoted as a rule for other countries, there is an elective judiciary which seems to work well.

Vorlesungen über die Algebra der Logik. Von Dr. Ernst Schröder. Leipzig: Teubner. 1890. Vol. I. Pp. 717.

THE Algebra of Logic has here received an admirable setting forth at the hands of Dr. Schröder. The book is doubtless too large and too diffuse, but it is chiefly intended for a German audience (the subject has been hitherto neglected in that country), and Germans are not frightened away by voluminous reading. The doctrine is almost uniformly sound, and, what is of chief consequence, the arguments in favor of admitting the subject among the branches of human learning are well calculated to convey conviction. The arguments which have been advanced on the other side have sometimes been of a very curious nature. For instance, Mr. Bradley, in his 'Principles of Logic,' scouts it because it does nothing for reasoning that is not syllogistic—for example, for such reasoning as this: A is north of B, B=C, therefore A is north of C. In the first place, it is not true that reasoning of this kind is not included in an Algebra of Logic. The formal definition of the primary copula is simply that it is transitive—that is, that it is subject to the single condition that when A stands in a certain relation to B, and B stands in that same relation (or a limiting case of it) to C, then A stands in that same relation to C. Any relation whatever which fulfils this condition is already included in the Algebra of the primary copula—the copula, that is, which represents, in the first instance, the words "all . . . are . . ."

But in the second place, even if the Algebra of Logic covered syllogism only, no one could doubt its value who had tried to perform without it the extremely complicated pieces of syllogistic reasoning which it can work out by purely mechanical processes. The fact that not many instances of reasoning of this sort can be got from real life shows nothing. As Dr. Schröder points out, it is not strange that this kind of reasoning was seldom attempted at a time when it was almost impossible of accomplishment. Mr. McColl has already made a useful application of the theory to the determination of the new limits of several integrals upon a change in the order of integration.

Dr. Schröder makes constant acknowledgment, in very graceful terms, to the work of Mr. Charles S. Peirce and his school. He rightly considers that Boole's contributions to the subject possess, at present, only an historical interest. He seems to us to attribute rather less value than is due to the method of Mr. O. H. Mitchell as described in the 'Studies in Logic by Members of the Johns Hopkins University.'

Dr. Schröder's book is the only one, in any language, in which the subject can be properly approached by one who takes it up for the first time. We learn that a Spanish logician has undertaken a translation of it. For an English-speaking public, a somewhat different presentation of the subject would be preferable.

Choses d'Amérique; Les Crises Économique et Religieuse aux États-Unis en 1890. Par Max Leclerc. Paris: Plon. 1891.

M. LECLERC has collected into a book a number of articles which he contributed last summer and autumn to the *Revue Bleue* and the *Journal des Débats*, of which he is one of the editors. They are superior in many respects to the current newspaper correspondence and to the usual productions of French travellers in this country, being written with greater intelligence, and being notably free from the ridiculous blunders in the spelling of English words and proper names which one expects as a matter of course in French books. The only exception to be noted is that McKinley is uniformly called MacKinley—a pardonable concession to the inability of Frenchmen to make head or tail of the abbreviated form.

Of course, it is not possible, during a sojourn of three or four months, mostly spent in hurried travelling, to obtain a thorough knowledge of any country, and it is not surprising that a book written under such circumstances should contain statements that Americans cannot endorse. It is to be said, in the author's favor, that he is accurate when he speaks of subjects concerning which correct information can be obtained from newspapers and from conversation with public men, and that if he falls into error, it is mainly when he treats of national traits, manners, and customs, and generally of matters which no one can safely generalize upon except after years of intimate intercourse with various classes of the people.

He writes very intelligently and discriminately concerning the election of 1890, although he seems to consider it a victory of the Farmers' Alliance, and attributes to that movement an exaggerated importance—an overestimate which was more excusable at the time he wrote than it would be now. On the other hand, when he treats of our domestic manners he passes his brush over the time-worn stencil-plate for which we are indebted to the combined imaginations of our foreign critics and our native humorists. To cite a single instance, he appears to regard the so-called personal column in certain newspapers as a tolerated method of obtaining acquaintances of the opposite sex among respectable people. Another misconception is the great influence which he attributes to the Catholic Church. To this he is no doubt led by a combination of the patriotic with the religious bias, to use the terminology of Herbert Spencer.

Perhaps the most interesting passages to American readers are those in which M. Leclerc suggests, with some detail, a method by which France might retaliate the vexatious provisions of the McKinley Administrative Bill, and, by touching the pockets of American farmers, bring about a repeal or modification of the offensive sections. He proposes that all exporters of American products, such as pork, lard, etc., should be required to go before French consuls to procure certificates of inspection, etc, for which a fee should be charged, and the same burdensome formalities should be imposed that we require of a French manufacturer who sells his wares to us. He argues that if some such course were pursued in the case of our cattle, petroleum, and other exports, our farmers and producers would receive an object-lesson in international comity which would open their eyes to the unfairness of our recent legislation, and bring about a change of policy.

Essays, Reviews, and Addresses. By James Martineau. Selected and revised by the author. II.—Ecclesiastical, Historical. Longmans, Green & Co.

THE second volume of Martineau's collected essays has an interest more personal to himself than the first. It brings out very clearly his unsectarian spirit, as marked as that of Channing, and which, like that of Channing, has often made him an object of suspicion and distrust to the sectarians of the Unitarian body. His grounds of sympathy with and distrust of this body come out clearest in two letters, "The Unitarian Position" and "Church Life or Sect Life?" He believes in no dogmatic basis of church union whatsoever, and would not be the minister of a church having a doctrinal name, nor belong to an association having any doctrinal limitation, though his private opinion is of the clearest Unitarian stamp. A very interesting and suggestive essay is that on "A Way Out of the Trinitarian Controversy." It is through the recognition that what Trinitarians worship as the Son, Unitarians worship as the Father. Several of the papers deal with the Established Church and its relations with the dissenting churches, and bring out the author's noble but impracticable dream of the National Church as a federal union of all the sects, independent of doctrinal agreement. In the preface there is a deep-drawn sigh that his "life-long conviction and intense aspiration has ceased to meet with any response, beyond a little unmeaning lip-homage of those who practically contradict it." It is evident that the trend of things is quite another way, towards no establishment whatever. Martineau's scheme, to which he has frequently returned, is extremely academic, and that of an

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

idealist who quite underrates the organic vitality of religious bodies.

There are two admirable studies of Charles Kingsley's writings, and that on his 'Alexandria and her Schools' will, let us hope, send some to it who did not know it in its day. There is incidental treatment of John Henry Newman's writings in several of the papers, while one is devoted entirely to his 'Difficulties of Anglicans.' That assault on Protestantism is fairly met, and the wide intelligence and knowledge of Martineau afford a striking contrast to the brilliant polemic of Newman, then whistling loud to keep his courage up in untried scenes.

A Dictionary of Classical Antiquities, Mythology, Religion, Literature, and Art. From the German of Dr. Oskar Seyffert. Revised and edited with additions by Henry Nettleship, A. M., and J. E. Sandys, Litt.D. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1891.

THIS is a work well fitted to do for schools and the lower classes in colleges what Smith's Dictionary of Antiquities does for more advanced students. The original is already in wide use in Germany, although it appeared only in 1882. Its particular merit is that, besides supplying articles on the subjects usually treated in a Dictionary of Antiquities, it contains also information on matters of Mythology and Literature, for which one generally goes to a Classical Dictionary. Thus the student finds all these topics treated in one easily handled volume of some 700 pages, excellently printed in large clear type on fine paper.

The English editors have not rested content with a mere translation into real English free from every trace of Germanisms. They have corrected (with the help of Dr. Seyffert) and enlarged the original as well. Among the entirely new or largely rewritten articles are those on Mosaics, Pigments, Vases (admirably treated, with seventeen illustrations), the Edict of Diocletian, the Law of Gortyna, and notices of artists and architects. It is in the direction of art that the book especially excels. This is seen also in the number and beauty of the illustrations, in which there is a great advance over the original. Together with the plans, they are generally selected from the best modern works, and in execution surpass anything which we have seen in an English book of this nature. The summaries of the history of Greek and Latin literature, as well as articles on the different authors and on religious matters, will be of particular usefulness.

In fact, teachers and students are nowadays getting to be so well supplied with manuals for the study of *Realien* that there is a danger that the reading of the ancient authors themselves will be restricted in the too great particularity of study bestowed upon some few of them. This would be a real misfortune; yet we see signs of it all about us in many "special researches" made by so-called advanced students in the regular college course and in graduate departments. With their reading confined to parts of certain authors that are ordinarily required for the A.B. degree, they set forth gayly upon some quest, as ignorant of the wide fields of literature that lie unvisited about them as was the Rev. Mr. Casaubon of the German investigations along the lines which he fondly deemed all his own. The work of individual research should not be discouraged, for nothing can sooner arouse the ambition of the young student, nor better train him in exactness and in critical acumen; but the vision must be broadened and the scope of the mind increased by the widest possible reading of the authors. The true way to scholarship was surely pointed out in the fifth of Ritschl's ten commandments—"*Du sollst lesen lernen.*"

But to return to our dictionary. The errors in such a work, as we lately remarked upon a similar occasion, will disclose themselves only slowly and in the course of use. In this book, besides the inexcusable lack of an index, that which will, perhaps, be most deplored by teachers is the omission to state with exactness the sources from which many of the pictures are taken. In the preface we read that as far as possible the original authority on which they rest has been stated in every case. But "Vase-painting" or "Pompeii" (*sic*) will not satisfy the teacher who wishes to get for himself or his pupil a more complete account of the subject treated than this book affords. It would have been easy to give the page of the work from which the illustration was actually taken, yet this is done in extremely few instances. In one of these, however, the statement of the source would throw doubt upon the value of the whole book, had we not ample evidence that generally modern works had supplied the illustrations. This is the plan of the temple enclosure at Eleusis (not in Seyffert's original), which is taken from the 'Unedited Antiquities of Attica,' a work published in 1817. Of course the plan is almost useless now. Baedeker's 'Greece' had supplied a better. But the editors are not often caught napping in this fashion, and even Aristotle's newly found treatise has been put into service. It is unfortunate that in this dictionary, as well as in the new Smith, the statement in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* about the theatre of Megalopolis (already acknowledged to have been premature) has been accepted as gospel. The debate between the Old Stagers and the No Stagers, too, is not left open, as it certainly might have been with safety, but the No Stagers get small comfort in a footnote. Under "Drama," in the account of the costume of comedy, not a word is said about the σωμάτιον. A still stranger omission, in a somewhat full account of the law courts, is that of the ἀνάκρισις, that special peculiarity of Attic judicial procedure. Here also the description of the method of voting in court is defective. Under Persius, it is said that the so-called prologue is omitted by Jahn in his latest edition. It stands in its ordinary place in the edition of 1868; in the revision by Bücheler since Jahn's death it is placed after the satires. For the lighting of the vestal fire by a burning *glass* there is no evidence whatever. A welcome feature and a task well performed is the marking of the quantities in Greek and Latin words throughout the book.

Popular Lectures and Addresses. By Sir William Thomson. Vol. III. Navigational Affairs. Macmillan & Co. 1891. 12mo.

THE first volume of this collection was noticed in this paper some time since, and is now followed by the third instead of the second, which is yet to appear. Though the subjects treated are not usually considered interesting, the work will be found very attractive to the educated general public, to yachtsmen on long voyages, and even to professional navigators. The first lecture embraces the general subject of navigation and the methods employed, both old and new. Of these last, the most important is what is known as Sumner's method of determining the place of a ship at sea, which we owe to the late Capt. Thomas B. Sumner of Boston, and which is now, we believe, in general use. Many interesting and valuable special contrivances for signalling are described, and the whole chapter is eminently readable and suggestive. This is followed by a chapter on the tides, giving a very clear account of the theories and methods of observation, and including an account of the machine known as the tide-predicter, contrived by Prof. James Thomson and Sir William Thomson, his brother. Five valuable appendices follow this lecture. The third lecture, with two appendices, embraces terrestrial magnetism. A paper on deep-sea soundings follows. Sir William Thomson gives in this the history of his invention of the steel-wire sounding apparatus which was rejected by the British Admiralty, but which has been brought in this country by Lieutenant-Commander Sigsbee to a great degree of perfection, and, in the form devised by him, was used in the voyage of the *Blake*. The curious reader will do well to peruse the chapter on this subject in Mr. Agassiz's beautiful work. Very interesting and instructive papers on Light-house Characteristics and on laying deep-sea cables follow. For yachtsmen and shipbuilders the chief attraction of the volume will probably be the lecture on Ship Waves, with which the work ends. Some parts of the book are too abstruse for readers not versed in the higher mathematics, who will probably say,

—"les mathématiques
Donnent des coliques";

but even these will find the greater part of the work well worthy study.

Elementary Text-Book of Botany, for the use of schools. By Edith Aitken, late scholar of Girton College, and certificated student in first-class honors of the University of Cambridge. Longmans, Green & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp. xi., 248.

THIS little book was written by a lady teacher who had sought in vain for a botanical text-book suited to the needs of her class. Professedly proceeding from the familiar to the unfamiliar, she has succeeded in developing the subject in a very attractive way—a way that will fairly entice the student to a closer and closer observation of nature as seen in common plants, and will lead the young disciple along a pleasant path to a very considerable knowledge of the science. After a few pages concerning the root, the stem, the leaf, the flower, and the fruit, she takes up the Scotch fir, and, with it as text, disposes of Gymnosperms in three pages. The wild hyacinth, the daffodil, an iris, an orchid, and meadow grass sufficiently explain the Monocotyledons. A buttercup, a poppy, a violet, and a few other common plants do the same for the Dicotyledons. Part second is a similar "description of some typical non-flowering plants, or cryptogams,' leading the way from *Protococcus* and the yeast plant through several algæ up to a moss and a fern. Part third is a more minute description of the structure and physiology of flowering plants, beginning with fertilization and ending with the curious behavior of climbing, sensitive, or insectivorous plants, the whole interspersed with sufficiently explicit directions for practical work. A good teacher, with a small class of bright and willing students, would find not only profit but much pleasure in pursuing Miss Aitken's system for a season. The floral formulas which are given, such as K (5), C 5, A (5+5), G^1 for a pea-blossom, look rather mysterious, and do not seem to be explained in the book. But any good teacher could tell what they mean, and, once

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

understood, the pupil would try to find the formula for each new flower. The figures are mostly very good, though many of them are old acquaintances, as they needs must be, since the author modestly disclaims any pretensions to originality. The real originality is in the charming treatment of the whole subject, and in omitting much non-essential matter which one usually finds in so-called elementary text-books.

Homes of Family Names in Great Britain. By Henry Brougham Guppy. London. 1890. 8vo, pp. 601.

NOTWITHSTANDING that this book has been moderately praised by the *Athenæum*, we cannot advise any American genealogist to buy it in the hope of deriving assistance from its pages. Mr. Guppy desired to investigate the local distribution of British surnames, and sought a short-cut to his end. Assuming that the farmers were the least migratory class of the population, he examined the Post-office Directory for the names of all farmers. Every name which was borne by more than 7-10 of 1 per cent. of the whole was taken into account. He then found that while each county possessed some special surnames, others were common to more counties, so that he made five classes of names—general names found in 30-40 counties; common names, 20–29 counties; regional names, 10–29 counties; district names, 4–9 counties; county names, 2–3 counties. But to a genealogist it is no news to be told that Smith is a common name in 40 counties, or Hobbs in 9; and of little assistance to find that Smiths abound in Gloucestershire more than in Devonshire. All the valuable results of this examination of the records of farmers could have been summed up in a magazine article, and would have even then been valuable simply as confirming what every one felt was the truth, without minute researches.

In respect to names peculiar to each county, this book is vague and misleading. The author tries to check off his "farmer" statistics by the well-known data concerning "gentle" families. He sprinkles in extracts from county histories without regard to date, and gives analogies which are absurd. The whole of this part of his performance is beneath criticism; and the fact that such work receives even moderate praise in London shows how much the study of local history there has declined since the death of John Gough Nichols.

Noctes Manilianae. Scripsit R. Ellis. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1891.

IT is only in the past two years that really scientific criticism of the author of the 'Astronomica' has been made possible by Thomas's collation of the oldest MS., the Gembloux, with Jacobi's edition. Jacobi believed that Vossianus 2 was the chief authority, while Bechert has endeavored to show that it is full of interpolations. Dr. Ellis takes issue with both, contending that the Vossianus is singularly free from corruption, but holding it inferior to the Gembloux, which he rates above all others. The 'Noctes' comprise some two hundred pages of emendations and notes, written in Latin, and everywhere marked by that soundness of reasoning and power of critical acumen which scholars have learned to expect from the English editor of Catullus. Some few of the notes have already appeared in the *Journal of Philology* and the *Classical Review*, but by far the greater part is new matter, of a most welcome kind, in a comparatively novel field. The volume, which is beautifully printed, contains also an essay on the much vexed question of the name of the author of the 'Astronomica,' and some notes on the 'Aratea' of Germanicus. Dr. Ellis believes in the traditional Manilius, and expresses the opinion that neither Cicero nor Avienus was as happy as Germanicus in rendering Aratus's poem.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Grant. What's Bred in the Bone. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
A Sketch in the Ideal. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Atherton, Gertrude F. A Question of Time. John W. Lovell Co. $1.
Bovet, Madame de. Three Months' Tour in Ireland. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.25.
Campbell, Rev. J. G. The Fians; or Stories, Poems, and Traditions of Fionn and his Warrior Band. London: David Nutt.
Cooke, F. H. The Law of Life Insurance. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $4.
Daniel, J. W. Negotiable Instruments. 2 vols. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $12.
Duruy, Victor. History of the Middle Ages. Henry Holt & Co. $1.60.
Énault, Louis. Carine, a Story of Sweden. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.25.
Frémont, Mrs. Jessie B. The Will and the Way Stories. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Flaubert, Gustave. Madame Bovary. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
Garnett, Miss L. J. M. The Women of Turkey and their Folk-lore. Parts II. and III.: Jewish and Moslem Women. London: David Nutt.
Hancock, A. U. John Auburntop. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Malot, Hector. Romain Kalbris. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Newhall, Charles S. The Leaf-Collector's Handbook and Herbarium. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Oahspe: A New Bible. Boston: Oahspe Publishing Association.
Pendleton, Edmund. One Woman's Way. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Roche, J. J. The Story of the Filibusters. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Savage, Col. R. H. My Official Wife. New York: The Home Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Spencer, Herbert. Justice. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Stephenson, Prof. A. Public Lands and Agrarian Laws of the Roman Republic. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.

HENRY HOLT & CO., N. Y.,
HAVE READY:
DURUY'S HISTORY OF THE MIDDLE AGES.
By VICTOR DURUY. Translated by E. H. & M. D. Whitney. Edited by Prof. George B. Adams of Yale. 12mo, $2.00.
☞ *Advanced edition already in use in Yale and Mich. Universities.*
JERRY. By S. B. Elliot. 12mo, $1.25.

Coast of Maine.
CAPE ROSIER.
The lands of the "Cape Rosier Associates" on Penobscot Bay, 50 miles nearer Boston and the West than Bar Harbor, Mt. Desert, are offered for sale in parcels of five and ten acres and upwards. These lands comprise over ten miles of almost continuous shore-frontage in one of the boldest and most beautiful sections on the coast, twelve hours' journey from Boston. They front upon fine harbors, have beautiful rocky shores, beaches, woods, and mountain views. The drives along the shores and among the hills are very varied and beautiful. New wharves have been built, and new connections with daily trains and steamboats established. In these lands is offered an exceptional opportunity to purchase for very small sums fine and perfectly protected seashore estates. The lands will not be sold for speculation or in small lots.
ALFRED BOWDITCH, HENRY PARKMAN, J. MURRAY HOWE, } Trustees.
27 School Street, Boston, Mass.

Rare Engravings and Etchings.
A new Descriptive Catalogue with numerous Illustrations sent to any address on receipt of 10 cents.
FREDERICK KEPPEL & CO.,
20 East 16th st., New York.
Branch during summer season, Store No. 1, Grand Union Hotel, Saratoga Springs.

The American Revolution.
By JOHN FISKE. With Plans of Battles, and a new Steel Portrait of Washington from a miniature never before reproduced. 2 vols. crown 8vo, gilt top, $4.00.
"In these volumes Mr. Fiske covers a period of our history of the highest importance, and full of the greatest perplexity. . . . . Mr. Fiske gives place to no historian in his power of presenting vividly a campaign or a battle, or in describing with graphic force an individual leader or statesman; but more than any other historian he has opened to us the heart of colonial and Revolutionary history, making clear the diverse conditions, the conflicting theories, and the underlying unity of spirit among the early peoples on this continent. . . . We are grateful to Mr. Fiske for having given this work so popular a quality."—The Christian Union.
*** *For sale by all booksellers. Sent, postpaid, on receipt of price, by the Publishers.*
Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.
11 East Seventeenth Street, New York.

Letters of Credit.
We buy and sell bills of exchange on and make Cable Transfers of money to Europe, Australia, and the West Indies; also make Collections and issue Commercial and Travellers' Credits, available in all parts of the world.
Brown Brothers & Co., Bankers,
NO. 59 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

IF YOU WANT ANY NEWSPAPER, MAGAZINE, or REVIEW, American, English, German, or French, AT CLUB PRICE, write for our free Catalogue of two thousand titles. A. H. ROFFE & CO., 11 Bromfield St., Boston, Mass.

Exhaustion.
HORSFORD'S ACID PHOSPHATE.
The phosphates of the system are consumed with every effort, and exhaustion usually indicates a lack of supply. The Acid Phosphate supplies the phosphates, thereby relieving exhaustion and increasing the capacity for labor. Pleasant to the taste.
Dr. A. N. KROUT, Van Wert, O., says: "Decidedly beneficial in nervous exhaustion."
Dr. S. T. NEWMAN, St. Louis, Mo., says:
"A remedy of great service in many forms of exhaustion."
Descriptive pamphlet free.
Rumford Chemical Works, Providence, R. I.

Beware of Substitutes and Imitations.
CAUTION: Be sure the word "Horsford's" is printed on the label. All others are spurious. Never sold in bulk.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

SOME SUMMER SUGGESTIONS.

POWER THROUGH REPOSE.

By ANNIE PAYSON CALL. *16mo, cloth,* $1.00.

"Charming from first page to last."—*Boston Times.* "Has more than ordinary value."—*Sat. Eve. Gazette.*

A BOOK O' NINE TALES. With Interludes. By ARLO BATES, author of "A Lad's Love," "Albrecht," etc. 16mo, cloth, $1.00.

ONE OF OUR CONQUERORS. A New Novel. By GEORGE MEREDITH. One volume, 16mo, cloth, uniform with our popular edition of Mr. Meredith's works, $1.50.

A VIOLIN OBLIGATO, AND OTHER STORIES. By MARGARET CROSBY. 16mo, cloth, $1.00.

POEMS. By EMILY DICKINSON. Edited by Mabel Loomis Todd and T. W. Higginson. 16mo, drab cloth, gilt top, $1.25.

A QUESTION OF LOVE. A Story of Swiss Life. Translated from the French of T. Combe, by ANNIE R. RAMSEY. 16mo, cloth, $1.00.

THE STORY OF REINE; OR, MON ONCLE ET MON CURÉ. By JEAN DE LA BRETE. Translated by Julia W. Davis. 16mo, cloth, $1.00; paper covers, 50 cents.

MISS BROOKS. A Story. By ELIZA O. WHITE, author of "A Browning Courtship." 16mo, cloth, $1.00.

FAME AND SORROW, AND OTHER STORIES. By HONORE DE BALZAC. 1 vol., 12mo, half Russia, uniform with Balzac's other works, $1.50.

IDYLS OF THE FIELD. By F. A. KNIGHT, author of "By Leafy Ways." With illustrations by E. T. Compton.

BY LEAFY WAYS. Brief Studies in the Book of Nature. By F. A. KNIGHT. With illustrations by E. T. Compton. 12mo, cloth.

THE BAGPIPERS. By GEORGE SAND. Translated by Miss K. P. WORMELEY. 12mo, half Russia, uniform with "Balzac's Novels," $1.50.

BUREAUCRACY. By HONORE DE BALZAC. 12mo, bound in half Russia, $1.50.

INSIDE OUR GATE. A story. By Mrs. CHRISTINE C. BRUSH, author of "The Colonel's Opera Cloak." 16mo, cloth, $1.00.

THE NEW PRIEST IN CONCEPTION BAY. A Novel. By ROBERT LOWELL. 12mo, cloth, $1.50.

MISS EYRE FROM BOSTON, AND OTHERS. By LOUISE CHANDLER MOULTON. 16mo, cloth, $1.25; paper covers, 50 cents.

SERAPHITA. By HONORE DE BALZAC. With an Introduction by George Frederic Parsons. 12mo, half Russia, $1.50.

CHATA AND CHINITA. A Story. By Mrs. LOUISE PALMER HEAVEN. 12mo, cloth, $1.50.

PRISONERS OF POVERTY ABROAD. By HELEN CAMPBELL, author of "Prisoners of Poverty." 16mo, cloth, $1.00; paper covers, 50 cents.

A WOODLAND WOOING. A Story. By ELEANOR PUTNAM. 16mo, cloth, $1.00.

MIRAGE. THE TSAR'S WINDOW. MARMORNE.
MY WIFE AND MY WIFE'S SISTER.
AFTERGLOW. A DAUGHTER OF THE PHILISTINES. DIANE CORYVAL.
BABY RUE. HER PICTURE.
ALMOST A DUCHESS.

THE COLONEL'S OPERA CLOAK. KISMET. SIGNOR MONALDINI'S NIECE.

BY MARY COWDEN CLARKE.
A RAMBLING STORY.

BY HELEN JACKSON.
BETWEEN WHILES.

BY L. C. MOULTON.
MISS EYRE FROM BOSTON, and Others.

BY HELEN CAMPBELL.
PRISONERS OF POVERTY ABROAD.

In paper covers, 50 cents each.

ROBERTS BROTHERS, BOSTON.

LIFE OF
Jane Welsh Carlyle.

By MRS. ALEXANDER IRELAND.
8vo, 330 pages. Portrait.

The publication of this book is a literary event. It is a remarkable biography of a wonderful woman, written and compiled from materials never before made public. The powerful side light it throws upon the life and character of Thomas Carlyle will make the volume indispensable to all who venerate the genius, or are interested in the personality, of the Sage of Chelsea.

Vellum cloth (half bound), gilt top, $1.75.

Postpaid on receipt of price.

CHAS. L. WEBSTER & CO.,
67 5th Avenue, N. Y. City.

MILLION
BOOKS

RARE, CURIOUS, CURRENT, IN STOCK,
ALMOST GIVEN AWAY!
Libraries Supplied Cheaper than at any Book Store in the World.
LIBRARIES AND BOOKS BOUGHT.
MAMMOTH CATALOGUE FREE.

LEGGAT BROTHERS,
81 CHAMBERS STREET,
3d door West of City Hall Park, NEW YORK.

W. H. LOWDERMILK & CO.,
1424 and 1426 F Street, N. W.,
WASHINGTON, D. C.,
Publishers and Dealers and Importers of
Standard, Choice, and Rare Books.

We make a specialty of GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS, and can generally supply any one wanted on short notice.
Libraries bought for cash.

GUSTAV E. STECHERT,
Importer of Books and Periodicals
828 Broadway, New York.

Employs no agents in Europe, but has his OWN OFFICES at
London: 30 Wellington Street, Strand, W. C.;
Leipzig: Hospital Strasse, 10,
and thus has facilities SUPERIOR to those of any other firm.

Books for Libraries, Professors, and Students a specialty. Also rare and scarce books and sets of periodicals.

F. W. CHRISTERN,
254 Fifth Ave., between 28th and 29th Sts., New York.
Importer of Foreign Books, Agent for the leading Paris Publishers, Tauchnitz's British Authors, Teubner's Greek and Latin Classics. Catalogues of stock mailed on demand. A large assortment always on hand, and new books received from Paris and Leipzig as soon as issued.

MOSAICS
For floor and wall decoration. Send for handbook.
J. & R. LAMB, 59 Carmine St., N. Y.

Foreign Books, Subscription to foreign periodicals, Tauchnitz British Authors. Catalogues on application. CARL SCHOENHOF, 144 Tremont St., Boston.

SCOTTISH REVIEW.—ORIGINAL Edition. $4.00 per year. LEONARD SCOTT PUB. CO., 231 Broadway, New York.

School Trustees,
Principals,
Teachers,

And others interested, are invited to consider the advantages offered by the *Nation* as an advertising medium. School advertisements are printed in a uniform typography, with the address in the first line, classification being made by States, alphabetically, unless especially ordered displayed on other pages.

The *Nation*, in its special field of political and literary criticism, is unlike any other periodical, American or foreign. At least 10,000 copies are circulated weekly, but these figures do not accurately represent the number of its readers. It is taken by reading-clubs and literary associations in a large number of places and may be found on file in every library of importance in the country. There are probably few weekly periodicals whose columns offer so favorable an opportunity for reaching an audience interested in educational matters.

Advertising rates, 15 cents a line each insertion, with the following discounts: 5 per cent. on four insertions, 10 per cent. on 8 insertions, 12½ per cent. on 13 insertions, 15 per cent. on 26 insertions, 20 per cent. on 39 insertions, 25 per cent. on 52 insertions.

The *Nation* is sent free while advertisement continues.

Orders may be forwarded through any responsible advertising agency, or directly to

THE NATION, 208 Broadway, N. Y.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED